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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

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Mythology Preserves Historical Beginnings

WILLIAM AND JOHN CHAPITIS

Whitefish Bay, Wisconsin

Man is inclined to look for that station in life which will ensure lasting security and uninterrupted comfort. If he does attain such a place, he has to expend little or no further energy to improve on the things at his disposal; for his daily procedure becomes nothing more than a routine, hardly ever punctuated with outside pressure. But in a world which is becoming more and more mechanized, mechanical devices are depriving man of most time-honored routine. Such is the nature of machinery. Hence, a man whose daily routine is his security, is socially and economically upset by scientific and engineering innovations.

When the routine of many is taken over by instruments of scientific progress, then a nation-wide economic upheaval pays its distressing visit. The resulting embarrassment of each individual is equal to his lack of readiness for readjustment. Ordinary legislation and sociological treatment are far from enough. Anything that has been allowed to fester for a long time cannot be cured immediately with the mere stroke of a surgeon's knife. An increasingly technical world compels man to develop new ideas for more work with which to harness the implements of technology. The alternative is the demoralizing disorder of depression, war, or revolution. Man, however, can learn to adjust himself with less hardship by fostering the source of originality with which nature equipped him. That source is the imagination, the cradle of all creativeness.

The imagination of one generation, once stripped of its illogical parts, becomes the reality of the next.

(How can romanticism and realism ever be definitely separated?) Just cite the numerous prophecies of thinkers like Jules Verne and Edward Bellamy. A man may have his own creation; he may adapt the creation of another; he may inherit the benefits of a creation; or he may sell his services for extending and marketing the product of another's idea. Whatever a man's position is, his life becomes a furrowed routine when he adds nothing new to it in proportion to its extensiveness. A thing, once born of the imagination, eventually becomes the skeleton of routine which must be dressed for life in an advancing society. Some man originally visualized the possibility of riding in a carriage equipped with wheels and springs. Many adapted the idea to their manufacture of vehicles, with the consequence of long-lived security forthcoming from a process slightly modified with minor improvements. But, in time, others took the skeleton of the idea and revolutionized the world of road travel by extending the principle of the four wheels and springs to our present automobile. Obstinate and unprepared manufacturers of carriages, dreading the loss of their security, fought against the propagation of the automobile with self-devastating results. The motion picture industry in the sphere of entertainment and other large enterprises unfold similar histories. Man's continued creativeness is his only security and the security of all who assist him. To exercise his creativeness, a man must be endowed with potential imagination, he must be observant and well-informed on a variety of things, and he must study actual products of the imagination. Of these

many products, one of the richest and the best organized is mythology.

Instead of going into a consideration of any contemporary masters of creativeness, we shall take the very first signs of functioning imagination in the annals of mankind—mythology—the first preserved record of man's mental endeavors. Too many use a disparaging tone in referring to fables and myths. Yet many of the same ones take nothing so seriously as the silly sentimental songs which lead them to encounter the reality of matrimony and the consequent loss of the man's voice. Whereas fables and myths employ the imagination as a tool to teach worth-while lessons and to entertain at the same time. Who is there, young or old, who does not enjoy Walt Disney's creations on the screen? Imagination is still imagination, even though its fantasy is expressed in terms of present day paraphernalia.

To study the development of a growing child's imagination, there is no better auxiliary model than primitive man and his product. The mystery that the latter experienced in contact with the strange phenomena about him must have been similar to the bewilderment which causes a boy to ask his many conflicting questions. When early man began to investigate the meaning of his surroundings, then scientific research and analysis commenced in a most naïve and crude manner. His mind, like that of a mentally active child, went on flights of the imagination, pinned down to earth only as much as his scant "science" could restrain him.

Thus we arrive at a working definition: Mythology is the imaginative explanation of natural and human phenomena in the absence of more scientific data. (Many a myth might have originated from sheer mental playfulness.) Man's mind often works analogously in arriving at conclusions. In the observation of birds, ancient man saw that they too, like humans, ate and moved like living beings. It was not difficult for a gifted man to carry on the analogy far enough to imagine the possibility of man's flying. The myth of Daedalus and Icarus is evidence of the fact that some thought of aviation. But man had to wait until this century to complete the scientific check on the imagination so that the airplane is a reality. Many of the myths about the wandering and the romances of certain mythological characters are purely the expression of man's playfulness of mind and his love for narrative in the attempt to entertain himself and those about him. *Alice in Wonderland*, though not mythology, is read by old and young alike for entertainment. *Gulliver's Travels*, bitter satire that it is, is still of interest to young people because of the vivid imagination employed.

At this point it is well to bolster our stand by calling on outstanding authorities of the imagination. George Meredith, in his introduction to *The Ordeal*

of *Richard Feverel*, tells that the thing imagined may not be true, but that the faculty of the imagination is in itself a reality; we cannot overlook man's imagination, for it forms an important part of his life. The mind and its departments psychologically influence a man's actions. Edgar Allan Poe, certainly an authority on imagination, insists that the imagination cannot create anything which does not exist already in the order of reality, either as a whole or in parts. When man registers a figment of the imagination, the parts of it he has seen, read about, or heard of before. The very chimera does not exist as a composite being in the world of actuality. Yet the head of a lion has been seen as a congruous part of the lion; the goat's body exists as a part of the entity of a goat; the dragon's or serpent's tail is known to be really the caudal appendage of the respective being. A troubled or uninformed mind, when suddenly provoked, will conjure up scenes of confusion from which chimeras arise to symbolize a bewildered mind. In this manner, ancient man procured his copiousness of myths. Apart from contemporary dramatic purposes, the ghosts, witches, and other preternatural beings provide us with external symbols of haunted mentalities as in Shakespeare's tragedies.

Moreover, nature most effectively channels human imagination by means of analogies. Comparisons and analogies give humans an opportunity to see themselves in the light of others or to see one thing measured with another. Man looks into the things about him and often receives an inspiration for a new invention: the iconoscope in television is fashioned after the human eye; many phenomena might have suggested the submarine, and one of them might easily have been a large fish or a sea mammal. In "Thanatopsis," William Cullen Bryant observes:

To him who in the love of Nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language . . .

Early man's material unquestionably was the mysterious nature surrounding him. Oliver Wendell Holmes concludes that one thing may be readily explained by way of comparison to another: "The universe swims in an ocean of similitudes." True, very few of us can read meaning into things. Chief Eagle Feather, an Indian lecturer, tells of an incident that occurred when a white boy from college was visiting on his reservation. They came upon an old Indian muttering enthusiastically over a fountain. When the elder saw the white boy laughing at him, he stopped suddenly: "What's the matter? White boy no hear water talk to him? Ugh! white boy make too damn much noise." Robert Browning, in "Abt Vogler," discloses how there are certain few who are able to interpret our surroundings for us:

But God has few of us whom he whispers in the ear;
The rest may reason and welcome. 'Tis we musicians know.

No better example of the workings of analogy need be sought than Browning's "How the Good News Was Brought from Aix to Ghent." Though the poem onomatopoeically narrates the rocking of galloping horses, the inspiration for it came to the poet while he was on a ship in the swaying waters of the Mediterranean. Is it any wonder that the ancients referred to the waves as riding horses? The simple Indian myth, explaining why the rabbit has a short tail, is a graphic instance of the imagination patterned into an analogy. It so happened that the little bunny rabbit with its originally long fluffy tail scampered away from his nest just before the heavy snowstorm set in. As the snow thickened, the rabbit lost his way. He kept on running, while the snow continued to rise until it was as high as the treetops. By this time, since the rabbit was tired, he nestled in a tree-top which appeared to be an ordinary clump of bushes. He slept right through to spring. When he awoke, he was dismayed to find himself in the top of a tree, for the snow had melted. Compelled by hunger, he finally gathered enough courage to jump to the ground. As he brushed through, the tips of the branches caught bits of his tail. By the time he was back on the ground, the twigs had scraped his tail down almost completely. Thus we have the Indian's imaginary explanation as to why the rabbit has a stubby tail and why we have pussy-willows.

Similarly, many of the classical myths are imaginary explanations of human and natural phenomena in the absence of scientific restraint. The myth of Pyramus and Thisbe accounts for the blood-red color of mulberries, once "known" to be snow-white. The story of Perseus and Medusa's head could have been prompted by geological formations like our own Old Man of the Mountain. Arachne's sad plight in her weaving contest against the angered goddess Minerva resulted in spiders. The absence, presence, and the direction of the winds could come from no other place but the storm-ridden island where King Aeolus held sway over them in his vast cavern. Should the ancients have ever discovered the Gulf Stream with its warm water flowing from the West, they would have had convincing "scientific" evidence of the fact that the hot sun descended into the western sea to cool every night. The myth of Midas explained the occurrence of gold-bearing sands in the River Pactolus in Asia Minor. (Midas finally washed himself free of the gold-producing touch by walking up the stream from the mouth to its very source.)

Who else but Venus and Cupid could have been responsible for the mysterious psychology of love? The myth of Ceres and Proserpina was sufficient to

show the reason why nature had its cycles of summer and winter. Clytie's being jilted by the sun-god Phoebus and pitied by Jupiter gave man the ever watchful and longing sunflower. The abduction of a Helen might have caused the Trojan War, but time and imagination must have created the mythological setting for her going with Paris. Even today, in spite of our elaborate press and other means of communication, facts are very easily, though often unintentionally, distorted. (Whatever might have caused King Edward VIII to abdicate, the newspaper public certainly feels that Mrs. Simpson precipitated his venture. Then, why not the story of Helen of Troy?) And finally, add to all this the organizing and literary genius of an Ovid or a Homer, and you have well told narratives which are relayed widely enough to become a lasting part of universal tradition.

Attempting to interpret his own existence, ante-mythological man looked into the lower forms of creatures. By comparing himself with the beings of the lower order, he sensed some strange superiority because of his readily evident versatility for adjustment. But then, men themselves were not all identical; they, too, could be classified. Those who excelled in a large degree had to have some mysterious influence to give them that marked prowess. The occult, inspiring influences could have been none other than those of the invisible gods. Since the heroes, having human form and behavior, were superior, then they must have been half man and half god. Hence, there came the myths about demigods born of mixed parentage, divine and mortal. Thomas Carlyle's *Heroes and Hero Worship* provides us with much plausible theory on this point. Since most of early man's life was lived in terms of physical adjustment and struggle against the elements, the heroes of combat and adventure were the most numerous demigods. Others (spiritual and social advisers, priests, and soothsayers) with unusual interpretative and reasoning powers were the media between god and man, and, accordingly, were also considered demigods. The poets and the Lindberghs of our own day would have been demigods in the mythological era. Time and distance eventually glorify the prominent ones with the mystical halo of heroism.

Extending the analogy of being, man must have visualized some invisible supreme powers responsible for the mystifying phenomena of the winds, sun, sea, thunder, rain, the coming and going of the seasons, et cetera. Thus he created the hierarchies of deities who controlled the items of nature. As the gods were immortal, ichor, not ordinary blood, coursed through their veins. Man's concept of the spiritual world is a negative-positive one; for, the explanation of things in the invisible world, with which he has had no direct experience, is based on

materials which he positively knows in the visible world of reality. (Such is our theologians' portrayal of our own hereafter. Call to witness Dante's "Divine Comedy.") Consequently, the mythology builder pictured the gods as immortal beings with human attributes in a degree of perfection. As a result, we have numerous episodes concerning the domestic and social misunderstandings and jealousies of the gods and goddesses; viz., those of Juno, Venus, Minerva, and Jupiter. Mount Olympus, the highest point in sight, naturally became the home of the gods.

Attempting to account for the origin of the whole universe, man saw that everything he ate eventually originated from the earth; birds rose heavenward from the earth, only to return again; water bubbled out of the ground before running on its way; all vegetation had its roots in the ground. The earth, then, was the beginning and mother of all. All creatures that came out of the earth again became a part of it after death. Since man's last step was the grave beneath the earth, then it was easy for man to place his next world entirely beneath the ground; and what better entrance than the cave at Cumae could anyone have found? Ask any who have entered it on a classical tour. The deities inhabited the heavens and Olympus whence they expressed their feelings toward mankind through winds, storms, fair weather, thunder, et cetera. The entire universe was supported on the shoulders of Atlas, for Mount Atlas stood forth a symbol of power and endurance on the very verge of the known world. (Need we ask what inspired Vergil's beautiful personification of Mount Atlas in the *Aeneid* IV: lines 246-255?) All came out of the earth and again retraced their way to it. It was all a vicious circle, certainly; but a circle is a geometric figure which has no beginning or end; and that is symbolic of eternity. Such a philosophy was satisfaction enough for the pagan mind. The pagan was fated to live his life the way the gods had willed. The "parable" of Laocoön, moreover, warned him against trying to avert the *arcana caelestia*. So closely knit together with divine existence was everything, animate and inanimate, that to this day our ancient languages have masculine and feminine gender for the personifications of things which are of the neuter gender in more recently developed tongues.

Our study of the myths of other nations disclosed to us the similarity they bear to the classical. Biblical passages also resemble the stories in our myths; e.g., Noah's ark, and Deucalion and Pyrrha. The polytheism of the pagans responds to the Christian hierarchies of the angels. In all of this we can see evidence of the common trials, aspirations, imagery, and constancy of human nature. Even the writers of gags for the stage and radio often think that they have an absolutely original joke, only to discover it in the corner of a magazine some ten years old. Therefore,

mythology provides us with a good study of primitive man's art in portraying the basic phases of human nature.

Any age of mythology, like an age of industrial or social revolution, is a time of wide interpretation because of the provocative activity. Any nation with a rich mythology may rightfully boast of an active past. Apart from the "racketeering" which might have taken place to promote the building of many temples and the giving of contracts, still the inspiring work done on them tells nothing but the story of the lofty aspirations of the majority. British literature of the Elizabethan age still commands respect, for it grew out of a most active age in the history of England.

Classical mythology itself is the encyclopedia of knowledge in the ancient Mediterranean world, for the mythology preserves the first bits of recorded scientific speculation. It is more than purely literary or imaginary playfulness. In mythology we find that type of mental activity which prompts the inductive and deductive reasoning in developing our sciences. In mythology we find, then, the earliest signs of many of our sciences. As time went on, man questioned beyond the imaginary explanations to start scientific progress. The myths about any of the constellations might have led to astronomy. The story of Medea and her medicines might have spurred on medical research. In the myth about the origin of the Myrmidons we have a bit of speculation that might have struck the spark for entomology. The narrative concerning Arethusa might be one of the first chapters in the growth of geology. Incantations, omens, and the responses from the oracles of Apollo might have taken the place of our own psychoanalyses and lectures on psychology.

The fact that even a child questions mythology should be no disturbance to the story-teller; it is, on the other hand, strong evidence in proof of the fact that such questioning caused the expansion of scientific research. Accordingly, the reading of mythology is valuable to an individual because it provokes thinking which is indispensable in learning. Of course, the myths themselves may appear almost ridiculous to the ordinary person today; but there is much appreciation in them for the pupils who will be led to understand them in the light of their historicity.

In a highly technical world, civilization cannot go on without more ideas in proportion to the advance in technology. Man must cultivate his creativeness by developing the imagination, the source of all originality. Man's imagination, upon being stimulated, conjures up figures which are the raw material for the reason. (Dreaming is a good example of the imagination at work. An electric fan may analogously suggest an airplane. If the mind is in a troubled state, then an aerial disaster is a likely

dream.) Once the imagination has delivered its figures, the reason organizes the congruous parts and discards the illogical ones. The myth of Daedalus and Icarus proves that man has been speculating for a long time on the possibility of aviation; but it was not until recently that enough scientific data could be applied for the actuality of the airplane. Similarly, every new creation in science or in art originates in the imagination. You know, as well as we, that industry is crying aloud for new ideas. Well, why do we not spend more time in getting down to the bottom of the matter and fostering the imagination? In our blind rush for immediate material returns, too often we overlook the places where lasting security lies.

Mythology remains one of the strongest means for stimulating the growth of the imagination. The genius of an Ovid has organized it for us so that it is more effective than many of the individual modern stories for children. A Michigan mother of unusually questioning twin boys (who refuse absolutely since the age of three to believe in Santa Claus) tried scores of approved books for children with which to interest the boys, but all in vain. Finally she happened on a book of mythology in Latin. After translating the myth about the wooden horse of Troy, she found the children asking for more. The mother speculated to learn that the elements of human struggle against odds gives many myths the inexplicable tone of romance and reality combined, whereas the simple stories and fairy tales usually do not substantiate the boy's thought "of being a man" or the girl's dreams of "walking forth a lady." Moreover, the intensive imagination of the primitive mind that created the myths, and the child's mentality possess a natural mutuality.

We do not say that the study of mythology will produce a supply of creative minds to dispel all possible social and economic slumps. It will affect this no more than do our elaborate courses in music overcrowd the symphonic orchestras of Stokowskis, or our highly organized athletic systems furnish nothing but stars for our college football teams. But a larger percentage, small as the leadership group always is, will be stirred to more creative mental activity. The others will certainly learn to appreciate the creative endeavors of those that can display them. To this very day, the world is as full of myths as it is of scientific speculations. Mythologically speaking, Einstein is but a demigod in the myth of relativity and Byrd is another Aeneas in search of new lands. What is a myth to the classicist is a theory to the scientist; both express the commencement of a groping for facts to prove deductively that an imaginary figure has foundation in the world of reality. How many of the soundest-minded to this day frequent fortunetellers for advice on proposed ventures? How can anyone, then, ridicule the oracle of Apollo? The world of art

still uses material from many a myth to give vivid expression. There is hardly any other way, but by means of the imagination, to give concrete expression to an emotion or an abstraction: just recall Vergil's portrayal of Rumor, *Aeneid* IV, 173-197—" . . . At night she flies screeching between heaven and earth, nor does she close her eyes in sweet sleep; in the daylight she sits watchfully either on the roof-tops of dwellings or on lofty turrets, and terrifies great cities, clinging to falsehood and wrong, yet a herald of truth. . . ." An Addison or a Swift still pens his most effective satire when he resorts to his lively imagination. A product of the imagination of one person will stir up the imagination of another wherever it lies dormant; and mythology is among the best of the stimuli.

It is difficult for us, surrounded with electric buttons within easy reach and having become accustomed to rely on motor vehicles running over paved highways, to appreciate more fully the status of the men who created mythology. To live at least temporarily in the neighborhood of the settings which inspired the episodes of mythology, when vacations come, the teacher of literature, science, or history may spend a week profitably in some lonely cottage on the slope of an unfrequented mountain where he may hear Aeolus lashing into obedience his ubiquitous winds. Or he may betake himself in a rowboat and pitch a tent on some deserted island whence he may watch Proteus driving shoreward the droves of sea horses; Diana pacing along the edge of heaven's thickets; the Pleiades sparkling with tears in sorrow over the Trojan War; Ursa Minor awaiting the return of its mother, Ursa Major; or behold Venus smiling with the approval of Jupiter.

At length, mythology is one of the very first chapters in the history of humanity. We teachers of literature, science, and history could noticeably enrich our teaching and appreciation of man's social evolution, if we should dip occasionally into organized mythology for materials useful in comparative studies. It is thus that we may extend our roots into the ground of the past and grow more luxuriantly in our own day. Howard Mumford Jones, of Harvard University, in his "Wanted: More Glamorous Patriotism,"¹ corroborates our stand by saying: "I have, however, one advantage over the rising generation: I knew my American mythology before I knew its historical corrective." If we shun mythology and other similar records of the distant past, we may unwittingly find ourselves existing with our feet too far above the earth for comfortable social progress and growth. If American mythology enhances the study of American history, then world mythology must illuminate world history and help to foster the dream of the citizenship of the world.

¹ *Atlantic Monthly*, November, 1938.

The Wholesome Personality and Democracy

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All men have the same aim and problem of adjustment to the external world—that of maintaining the psycho-physical self in the face of real or fancied conflicts, insecurities or dangers from other men or from nature. This adjustment is chiefly characterized by integration, a feeling of unity or wholeness, so that the whole organism may function efficiently to obtain those satisfactions and securities to which each thinks he is capable and entitled. This integration proceeds through man's psychological interpretations of, and reactions to life or situations, his psychology constituting the sum total of his intellectual and emotional reactions.

If man would integrate himself, his efforts must be directed along the lines of sound psychological interpretations and reactions. Here is the heart of the problem! What constitutes sound psychological interpretations and reactions? What constitutes good integration and a wholesome personality? Do self-centered, egocentric psychologies and integration, or socially-centered, sociocentric ones? Egocentrism is essentially individualistic, independent, and of necessity competitive as a means of securing and maintaining independence while sociocentrism is essentially mutualistic, interdependent and of necessity coöperative as a means of uniting the parts of a society. Which of the two will benefit the individual most in the long run and which will appeal to him as right, obligatory on his part or ethical? Each individual will declare that in forming his judgment he is guided by what is right, true or accurate intellectually, by what is objectively factual; by what is logically and emotionally sound—in short by his conception of sound psychology.

Such psychology it appears would induce all, or most, individuals to believe that there is no practical integration unless it is social; for without ordered society life itself would be a physical conflict in an effort for self-preservation. Either we live by killing each other or we agree to forgo killing, at least in municipal and national forms of society. But wherever there may be any degree of social or civilized life, it may be either negative or positive, in the sense that we leave each other alone or that we actually coöperate with each other. Now it would appear that man everywhere lives a negative form of social life, only "using force in self-defense"; that he lives by psychologies and institutions which are

egocentric; that these are psychologically and ethically wrong; that the only sound psychologies and institutions are those which are sociocentric; that a wholesome personality can only exist in a society which is essentially coöperative; that such is essentially identical with the philosophy of democracy, which includes a respect for personality, equality of rights in society, participation in and contribution to the life of the group, and coöperation for mutual ends with similar groups.

Egocentrism, or competitive independence, is evidenced in many spheres of life. It is revealed in our personal life by the universal practice of forming dislikes of people and withdrawing from social intercourse with them. Our dislikes may take the form of fears, hatreds and prejudices. Such judgments and emotions are the means of affording a sense of independence of, and an excuse for actual separation from those whom we feel delimit our personal satisfactions and securities. In withdrawing within ourselves and in declaring others to be inferior or harmful to us we are merely competing with them to establish a sense of self-esteem. This practice is the basic actual psychological practice of integration; it underlies all group, or supposed social psychology and institutions. Man feels that it is psychologically normal to resort to independence from apprehended physical and psychological insecurities.

Egocentrism is evidenced in group or institutional life by capitalism, nationalism as an end in itself, imperialism, and war. These are essentially independent entities competing against each other for power, trade and prestige lest another group possess an advantage and dominate the other. The Russian Revolution and Russian State have similarly proceeded and evolved by, and through competitive independent practices.

Egocentrism is evidenced in education. Children are exhorted to obtain an education for personal benefits to enable one to compete better with and against his fellows. Education is conceived as a battle of wits and the sharpening of wits by training in reasoning and enrichment through increased information. The point is well demonstrated by a typical adage: "Dig into books so that later you won't have to dig ditches." Except for some current embryonic emphasis, education has stressed individualistic advantages rather than any personality, ethical, or social

outcomes. The school adds to the strengthening of the egocentric mind-set by its attitude toward, and teaching of the *status quo*. In general, the school inculcates beliefs that society as it exists is good, and that difficulties proceed only from the lack of honesty and goodness in men. In general, the school does not critically teach an analysis of capitalism, nationalism, and war in the light of objective facts, or ethical or sound psychological standards. The content of social studies as revealed through the textbooks used is often most unscholarly, containing information which would lead one to conclude that present day institutions are infallible and impeccable and that their characteristics—especially competition for independence—are essentially sound. More than objectives and content, however, it is the method of teaching which educates children in egocentric psychology. Competition for rewards, and punishment for failure to learn or achieve, are the chief devices to motivate learning. Fear of punishment and fear of failure with subsequent loss of a reward or infliction of punishment can hardly be said to be psychologically sound. Current drives for socialization, activity programs, and methods in accord with the principles of mental hygiene seem to give supporting evidence for this brief assertion.

Again egocentricism may of course be evidenced in the home. Parents struggling for security in a competitive world are quite likely to impress their children with their own maladjustments by the very atmosphere in which they live. Direct exhibition of dislikes, hatreds and prejudices of and towards others is quite likely to condition the child similarly.

Egocentricism appears to be the wrong psychology of life for several reasons. It is illusory, affording no permanent wholesome adjustment, since independence gives rise to a new insecurity: the possible loss of the new advantage. Competition against others to attain and maintain independent advantages is conflict in itself with the risk of loss or failure. Competitive changes give rise to fears, angers, hatreds and prejudices which are disintegrative and fail to permit of the centering of attention on the wider task. The illusory unstable nature of competitive independence is perhaps evidenced by the functioning of capitalism and national imperialism. Once a man or group of men acquire a surplus of wealth the problem of its security immediately arises. Either it is consumed or saved. If saved it can only be secure by investment in capital goods to produce more wealth as a surplus, or insurance, against the depreciation or loss of the initial one. If such a surplus is not secured in the competition with others a new insecurity arises. Then if one wishes to be secure, practice has brought it about that individuals form combinations, or that groups do so, thus eliminating competition and independence among themselves—an admission of the inefficacy of of those principles. Once a business enterprise

through invention, or combination of capital funds, secures superior machinery (capital) to produce goods, its advantages of lower costs and better or greater supply of goods tends to force competitors to resort to similar superior machine advantages, or to the lowering of wage costs. In short, the tendency of competition and new capital is to make for fluctuations in production, prices, wages and employment as to produce widespread social insecurity.

The same unstable relations produced by competitive independence is witnessed in national life. Once national independence is attained the problem of its security arises. Will the nation be overcome in competition for power, prestige and trade? Will it be politically absorbed or conquered? Will there be a combination of nations against it to delimit its growth and prestige if not actually to assume jurisdiction over it? Will the diplomatic and prestige rivalries lead to war? The mutual fears and suspicions born of separation and competitive policies leads to designs or blunders and misunderstandings which induce war. Once war comes there is the risk of defeat and absorption or the fear of revolution at home with the ousting of the class that dominates the internal political organization of the nation. These insecurities undoubtedly afford evidence that competitive independence in world affairs is inefficacious.

The unsatisfactory nature of competition is of course attested to by the fact that local areas have coöperated to form national states thus eliminating much local institutional competitive independence. Alliances among themselves attest the virtues of co-operation. The elimination of competition under capitalism as attested by the rise of combinations of capital funds, of course, is one of the best proofs of the unsoundness of competition. And on the other hand the fact that capitalistic production by virtue of division and specialization of labor, and production *en masse* has become essentially coöperative in method is further argument for the essential soundness of co-operative ways of life.

Independence is to be condemned as illogical. Necessarily, we all wish to escape imposition and dominance by others or subjugation to them. It does not logically follow that independence is the true alternative. It would appear in the light of the insecurities already mentioned that interdependence is the true alternative.

In general, egocentricism is unethical, undemocratic, since it is based on a belief that the "end justifies the means." This means that others are considered and used as one's own personal means, that others have no rights or claims that must be respected in deference to social organization. Such a principle is purely subjective and is not ethics at all.

The better kind of integration is undoubtedly that which is sociocentric, which by virtue of its principles of coöperation for mutual interdependent

ends is the psychological expression of democracy. Such a functioning would remove man's fears of insecurities and conflicts by removing their causes. If he works together for mutual purposes he integrates himself personally as he does it socially. Good will, courage, confidence, and coöperation are the essential characteristics of integration which Burnham defines as the supreme purpose and task of life.

If the foregoing thesis be accepted, it only remains to educate man to those ends. Some measure of success may be met if we define here the essential nature of democracy and at the same time demonstrate that we have little of it in practice. While we have democracy in form we have little of it in substance. Our social institutions are designed for the egocentric purposes of dominant groups and not in the democratic interests of man in society.

Democracy exists socially when the theory of equal social and civil rights is honored in the performance. Widespread religious, "racial" and economic class prejudices against intermarriage, residence and social intercourse invalidates our professed faith of it in these United States. Although on paper we have attained political democracy by virtue of universal suffrage and practices of elected representatives we have no substantial democracy. Various agencies and practices circumvent the popular will and mold it in conformity with narrow group interests. For example, there is the dominant two party system with its bosses and machine politics. The two parties have dominant press publicity and guide public opinion to flit from one to another. The bosses and machines control nominations, vote-getting, and counting. "Rotten borough" representation in state legislatures permits the minority in rural districts to command majorities in the legislatures. These always stand for conservative political and economic measures contrary to pressing demands of large urban populations and classes. Other devices such as gerrymandering are well known.

With regard to national politics we boast that we are a democracy when the facts of history and present practice attest to the fact that we are not. It is popularly believed that our Constitution was created by men who believed in democracy and for that purpose. However, even Madison, called the Father of the Constitution admits in several of the *Federalist Essays*, especially number ten, that the Constitution was designed to protect the (alleged) superior rights and wealth of (alleged) superior men. For this reason checks and balances were written into the Constitutional framework to prevent any sizable group, especially one without any landed or other property from exercising control. Moreover, the Constitution did not provide for universal manhood suffrage. The right to vote was tardily granted by the states several decades after the adoption of the Constitution. It might appear today that the people really control

and that they practically have nullified the checks and balances. Exceptions may be noted: the Supreme Court may nullify any legislation nominally or actually in the public good; moreover, the two party system and a widespread public system of literacy (without any critical objective attitude to the printed page) has maintained the same classes and economic forces in control of government and society as when the Constitution was created. Although capitalism is stronger, richer, more financial and industrial than in 1789, the concept of ownership of capital by a few, their superior ethical right to it, and production for profit, are essentially the driving forces of capital now as then.

Actual political democracy in form or substance can hardly be said to exist when economic power is wielded by a few powerful enough indirectly to influence policies and elected leaders. Democracy does not so exist when political and economic power are divorced. The people have little control over their economic life. Control is in the hands of the few who possess ownership of significant amounts of capital. An economic system which is coöperative in physical form and in methods of production should have co-operative purpose and control.

Since man and his institutions are disintegrative *per se* how can a change be made to sound democratic institutions and psychologies? In the long run the general rise of social intelligence and the level of psychological adjustment might serve the purpose. But it will probably not be useful soon enough to save mankind from many problems which presage widespread personal mental ill health and catastrophic social changes. Since society and education ostensibly exist for the purpose of maintaining and creating sound intelligent and psychological action, it is the duty of both to see that generally accepted ethical and democratic ideals are carried out in the schools with accord to the principles of mental hygiene, particularly of integration of a sociocentric kind.

A great educational change is thus called for—a change from lip-service to substance, from mere literacy to critical evaluation, from quantitative education to qualitative. More than that it is necessary that changes be made in psychologies from egocentric to sociocentric ones not only in the life of the school, but in society and in the life of the teachers. One of the first steps is acceptance of the thesis set forth here. The second is that those who would advocate educational and institutional change must change as individuals. They must be integrated in the process. They must aid in the adoption of the democratic way of life by practice. Teachers have the primary opportunity and responsibility if we are to continue to assume that education is a vitally necessary function in society. Teachers need to work for educational reforms which will give reality to democratic education for wholesome personality in a democratic, sociocentric, society.

Should We Have an Integrated Social Science Course in Our Schools?

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Shall we continue to teach the various social studies as separate subjects or shall we combine them into one integrated course spread over the four-year period of the secondary school? Shall we persist in calling these subjects by their individual names, such as history, economics, community civics, and the like, or shall we merge them and present to the students a series of courses called Social Science I, II, etc? Since integration has become a controversial issue in connection with modern curriculum construction, it might be appropriate to present the point of view of both those who want to maintain the status quo and of those who advocate its adoption.

The movement toward the integration of subject-matter was stimulated after the World War because of the confusion that arose over aims, objectives, content, and methods of teaching. Many educators felt that it would solve the problem of the overlapping of material found in the various syllabi and, at the same time, serve as a way of escape for the pupils from an overburdened curriculum.

Integration is a new tendency in curriculum construction wherein specialization based on subjects gives way to combinations and consolidations. It is a psychological process by which an individual, activated by a real desire or vital interest, brings to bear upon a life situation the knowledge, skills, habits, and attitudes from all related fields of learning, using the emotional and mental resources of his entire personality. It should be distinguished from correlation, which is merely a pedagogical manipulation of subject matter, concerned primarily with the materials and methods used by the teacher in the process of planning his work. In other words, correlation is the means to an end.

Integration, on the other hand, is the end which all education seeks to attain. It concerns itself with objectives and with the learner's mental activities and experiences. These activities are the pupil's own as he is using his collective learning for a definite purpose. Obviously, to achieve this aim, there must be a complete re-selection and rearrangement of subject matter.

Outside New York City, the principle has been applied in many junior high schools where integrated social science courses are being given. One of the most ardent advocates of this movement, Professor Harold Rugg, has prepared for use in these schools

a number of textbooks in social science, such as *An Introduction to American Civilization*, *A History of American Civilization*, *A History of American Government and Culture*, *An Introduction to Problems of American Culture*, and *Changing Government and Changing Cultures*. Each book has an accompanying pupils workbook of directed study and a teacher's guide. However, these texts seem to stress the principle of *fusion* more than they do that of *integration*.

In the senior high schools not much progress in integration has been made, although we do hear of courses in problems in democracy in some of our western schools, while our course in general science in New York City seems to follow the trend. College courses in contemporary civilization are additional evidence of the growing popularity of this tendency to integrate the subject matter in the social sciences.

As already noted above, integration in the social studies involves the abolition of all subject lines, such as separate courses in history, civics, geography, and economics, and seeks to combine related material into a series of units. The student would then take a number of courses called Social Science I, II, III, etc. As an illustration, let us take one of these units, such as The Industrial Revolution. At the present, this material is taught in community civics, vocational civics, economics, European history, and American history. Under the new plan, the various subjects are eliminated and the student would study The Industrial Revolution as a unit, with all its historical, economic, and geographic elements considered as a whole. Again, we might have a unit entitled Democratic Developments in Modern Times. This would include a study of related material on modern governmental changes in the United States and certain foreign countries, bringing into play all essential political, economic, and social factors.

What are the arguments put forth by the proponents of integration? Among the many which have been presented over a period of about twenty years, the following are the most outstanding:

1. It will help us to carry out the chief aim of education, namely that it will create and develop rich and many-sided personalities; it will prepare the rising generation to enter the society now coming into being through thought, ideal, and knowledge, and to shape the form of that society in accordance with

American ideals of popular democracy and personal liberty; it will help to create a better type of American citizenship.

2. It will lead to the enrichment and development of the lives of our pupils to the greatest extent of their abilities and powers within their environment, and will train them to take their place in a democratic society in such a way as to make their country a better place in which to live.

3. It will help the pupils to acquire the factual knowledge necessary for clear thinking and the forming of judgments. If this knowledge is properly integrated to explain movements, periods, activities, etc., students will be trained to understand the problems of civilization and to think in terms of offering tentative solutions for these problems. Creative learning, rather than mere factual memorization will therefore be stimulated.

4. It will promote such desirable habits as independent study, accuracy, and intelligent use of textbooks and reference material.

5. It will develop skill in the use of dictionaries, atlases, encyclopedias and other reference works.

6. It will inculcate attitudes of historical-mindedness, scientific-mindedness, discrimination in art, music, and literature, interest in travel, etc.

7. It will train pupils to understand certain fundamental principles, such as the continuity of history; that the life of man and society is dynamic and is a process of ceaseless change; and that the increasing complexity and interdependence of human relations involve problems for which solutions are needed.

8. It will encourage more reading of the type of literature found in our libraries.

9. It is essentially psychological, since it is based upon pupil activity and interest.

10. It brings life and the curriculum into closer contact. Since life is a series of problems, it is much better to present a series of problems and to attempt to solve them by using the related social studies than to teach these subjects separately and, therefore, artificially.

11. It provides the proper motivation for the study of the social studies, since each unit introduces a new life-need and sets the mind toward a definite goal, namely, the solution of a genuine problem.

12. It leads to an intensive study of related topics, and therefore longer retention and readier recall should result.

13. It trains the pupils to think about community life by making use of the knowledge learned. This functional point of view will in turn promote purposeful learning.

14. It is practical because it aims to give a complete picture of life, institutions, governments, ideas, and problems of the period being studied. In this way our pupils will see relationships between the various aspects of life. A better understanding of each unit

is bound to follow since all the social studies play a part in illustrating and explaining the principles under consideration. A synthetic interpretation of civilization, past and present, will be the ultimate result.

On the other hand, the opponents of integration present the following arguments:

1. The objectives in each of the social studies can be attained just as easily and effectively under the present procedure as when the subjects are taught in some connected way.

2. In integration the material is ungraded and each preceding step is easily forgotten.

3. It may lead to confusion because the pupils may not understand the interrelationship of the various topics under consideration.

4. It is difficult to organize such a course, aside from the problem of selecting the material and preparing the necessary textbooks.

5. It requires teachers with broad training and a wide range of interests.

6. It is much easier to build such a program around geography than around civics or history, and even then, our students do not understand the laws of physical and economic geography.

7. Numerous difficulties are bound to arise in the teaching of each unit. To present a complete picture of life in "Europe in the Eighteenth Century," if that were the unit under consideration, we would have to bring into play such matters as physical and human geography, theories underlying the economic problems of the time, sociological aspects of life during that era, the rise and fall of dynasties in their historical setting, and all necessary cultural elements, such as art, architecture, literature, education, and religion. Since this would have to be done for each civilization or period studied, it would require the addition of a tremendous amount of factual material to an already overburdened social studies curriculum.

8. Finally, it has not as yet worked out successfully in the junior high schools where it has been tried.

There are certain questions that have been raised by teachers when approached on this issue, and satisfactory answers to them may help to further the cause of integration. Among these questions, the following are outstanding:

1. Is the average social studies teacher equipped for this kind of work?

2. Have we the time necessary to go into these units in such detail?

3. What shall we do about textbooks? Shall the class do all its work in the library?

4. Wouldn't this be too big a load for our average high school student? If so, what shall we do about those below the average?

5. What shall we do about the colleges that re-

quire for admission the completion of certain units of study in each of the social studies?

Integration may turn out to be a mere passing fancy, and then again, it may become the center of

all our future curriculum construction. In either case, it should be given serious consideration by curriculum makers, textbook writers and social studies teachers.

The International Forum

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THE YOUTH MOVEMENT IN ITALY

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The most striking aspect of the Italian youth movement, known as the Italian Youth of the Littorio,¹ is its membership. In fact at the last official count, October 28, 1938, there were 7,577,381 boys and girls from six to twenty-one enrolled in this national organization. At that time, the total Italian male and female population between those ages was 11,700,198, which means that 64.2% of the nation's youth were in the ranks. These figures stand out if one considers that the combined enrollment in the Boy and Girl Scouts of America, two of the largest youth associations in this country, which were founded at least a dozen years before the Italian youth movement came into being, barely exceeds 1,800,000. It is also necessary to point out in this respect that the youth population of America is almost three times that of Italy.

This numerical comparison by no means carries any implication as to the similarity of the two organizations, of their aims, activities and policies. As shall be seen later the Italian Youth of the Littorio does have many activities which are common to existing youth movements in other countries, but its basic principles differ substantially from those of the Boy Scouts of America or their counterparts elsewhere. It may be said at the outset that only political and social conditions such as prevail in Italy allow for a national, unitary organization of the young. In other countries the creation and development of youth organizations are chiefly matters of private concern, in Italy they are under the watchful eye of the government and their totalitarian set-up reflects the totalitarian principles of the Fascist state. Thus it was relatively easy to attain a rapid growth in membership, even leaving registration in the Littorio groups strictly voluntary, by discouraging other privately sponsored boy and

girl clubs. Another factor—of a social nature—greatly aided the government in achieving its purpose: the uniformity of the racial and religious backgrounds of Italian children.²

Apart from these considerations the fact remains that the outstanding feature of the Italian Youth of the Littorio is its nation-wide scope which directly or indirectly affects the entire youth of the country.

Before analyzing the aims and the activities of the Littorio organization it is well to narrate briefly the circumstances and the manner in which it came to life.

In order to grasp the reason for the extent of government effort devoted to the creation of a national and nationalistic youth organization in Italy it is essential to recall that the Fascist movement, in 1919 and during the early 'twenties, recruited great numbers of its supporters among the younger elements of the Italian people. Even the leaders, such as Italo Balbo, Dino Grandi, and many others, who are now prominent in the new regime, were not over twenty-three or twenty-four years old, while many of the rank and file were students still in their 'teens. The title of the song of the "Fascist Party," which is now always played together with the national anthem, is "Giovinezza" which in Italian means *youth*. The movement appealed to the idealistically minded Italian youth and the Fascist Party, especially during its period of formation, welcomed these vigorous and disinterested elements on which it could count more than on the older classes who had vested interests in the old order and eyed the growth of Fascism with little enthusiasm if not with apathy. Thus, the "Youth Vanguard," or juvenile sections of the Fascist Party, were born.

In the due time girl sections were formed and age

¹ The littorio, or fasces, was the Roman symbol of authority and unity. It was a tightly bound bundle of rods with an axe blade inserted into its upper end. A fasces appears on the reverse of the American dime.

² In France, for instance the Boy Scout organizations are four: the Scouts of France (Catholic), the Unionist Scouts (Protestants) the Israelite Scouts and a lay organization, the Eclaireurs de France.

groups were organized to include even the very young (Balilla and Sons of the Wolf). For some time the younger groups were controlled by the Ministry of Education, while the older groups remained within the Fascist Party. In later years the entire youth movement was placed under the jurisdiction of the Fascist Party. The name "Italian Youth of the Littorio," or the G.I.L.,³ as the Italians commonly refer to it, was recently adopted. When G.I.L. members pass the age

is to produce good party members who, according to Italian standards, signify the highest degree of good citizenship.

It has been said above that the activities of the Italian Youth of the Littorio are to a great extent similar to those of youth movements of other countries such as camping, physical culture, vocational training, public service during civil emergencies, cultural meetings, athletic competitions, etc. In the



A SEA SIDE SUMMER COLONY AT RIMINI

limit of the oldest group they are eligible for membership in the party.

The creation of the G.I.L. may thus be ascribed to the continuation of the Fascist Party policy of drawing its members from the younger sectors of the Italian population and of training and preparing them for full fledged party membership from their earliest years. From the Fascist point of view the aim of the G.I.L. is similar to that of the Boy Scouts movement in other countries. In fact the aim of the latter is "the promotion of better citizenship among the rising generation" and the purpose of the G.I.L.

³ The letters G.I.L. represent the Italian words: Gioventù Italiana del Littorio.

G.I.L. however these activities are supplemented by intensive and thorough pre-military training.

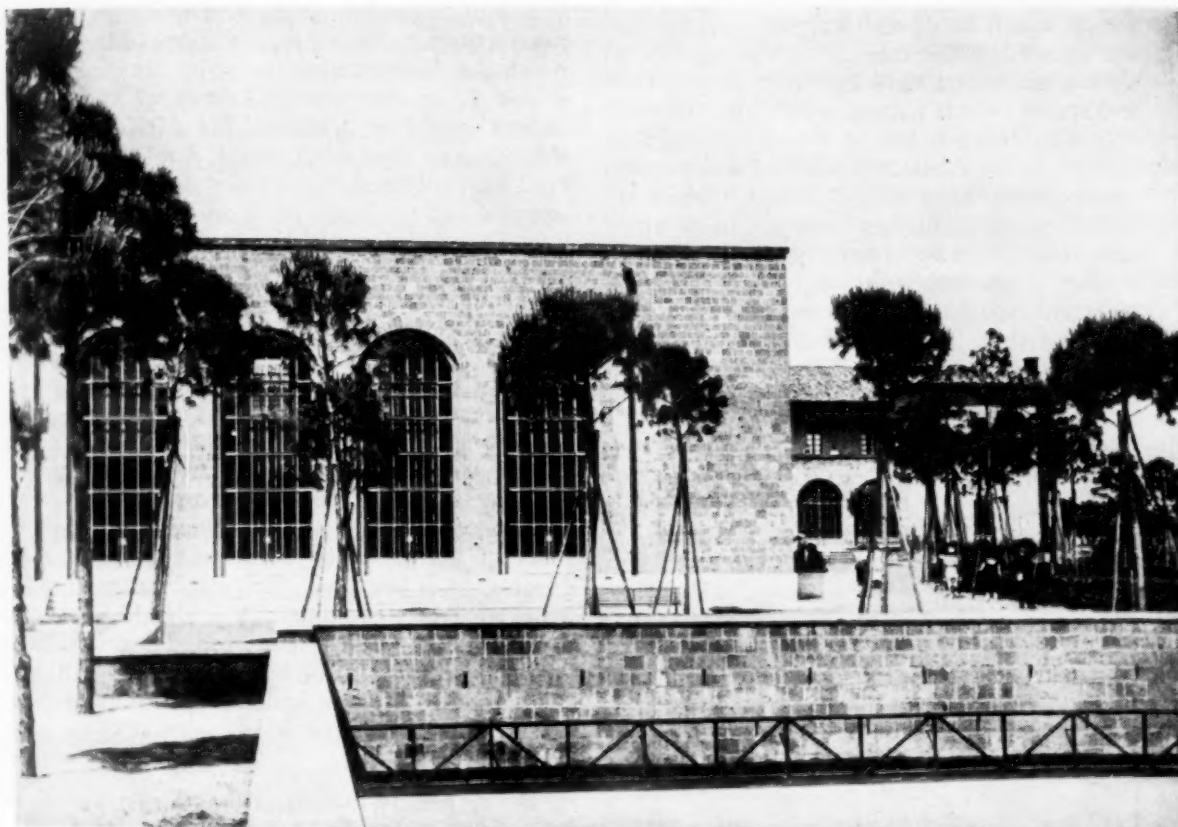
This aspect of the G.I.L. activities, aside from its political principles, is the one which is most susceptible to criticism on the part of American educators and students of youth problems. It would require too many words to discuss the merits or demerits of the system here and it may suffice to note simply that since compulsory military training for all able bodied male citizens is an accepted principle in Italy as well as in almost every other European country, it is undeniable that this principle may best be applied by making the period of regular conscription more effective by improving and extending pre-military

training. This type of training already existed in Italy prior to the present regime but it was restricted to simple drills and target practice on military rifle ranges. The G.I.L. has greatly enlarged the program and offers specialized training in the service in which the future conscript will be called to serve. Pre-military training also builds up a spirit of discipline which enables conscripts to acclimate themselves rapidly to military life when they are called for the eighteen-month period of regular service.

The age limits and names of the various age groups

of revolt which ultimately led to the evacuation of the city on the part of the invading troops.

The G.I.L. has its headquarters in Rome at the Mussolini Forum. The Forum is noted for its marble stadium and other stadia where the finals of the annual national athletic competitions are held and where other youth manifestations are staged. The Forum also houses, among the many other buildings, swimming pools, gymnasia, fencing academy, the academy of physical culture where the organization's officers and instructors receive their four-year training course.



ONE OF THE BUILDINGS AT ACADEMY OF PHYSICAL CULTURE (FOR GIRLS) AT ORVIETO

are as follows: Boys—Sons of the Wolf, from 6 to 8; Balilla, from 8 to 13; Vanguard, from 13 to 18 and Young Fascists, from 18 to 21. Girls—Daughters of the Wolf, from 6 to 8, Little Italians, from 8 to 14; Young Italians, from 14 to 18 and Young Fascists, from 18 to 21.

The Sons and Daughters of the Wolf derive their name from the legendary she-wolf who nursed the twin brothers Romulus and Remus, to whom the foundation of Rome is attributed. The Balilla are namesakes of a young Italian lad, Gian Battista Perasso, nicknamed Balilla, who in 1746 during the Austrian occupation of the city of Genoa, hurled a stone at a passing detachment of Austrian artillerymen. This gesture was the spark that started a flame

There is a similar academy for women at Orvieto.

Each town or village has its G.I.L. unit for which municipal authorities must provide playgrounds, stadia and meeting places, either in existing public buildings or in especially constructed G.I.L. "homes."

There are many other activities of the G.I.L. whose extent and results would be worth while examining such as the nation wide cultural competitions. In these competitions members present dissertations on assigned subjects and, after local and provincial preliminaries, the finals are held in Rome. There are similar competitions, for the selection of national winners, in sculpture, painting, literature and applied arts, as well as in all branches of sports and athletics. Vocational training is also greatly stressed, not only

in trades but in the fields of music and drama as well. Of particular interest are some of the G.I.L.'s social welfare activities for the material and moral relief of the needy, such as the mutual insurance fund for members maimed by accident or stricken by disease.

A few figures on the G.I.L. summer camps will convey an exact portrait of the thoroughness with which the aims and purposes of the organization are being carried out.

Since 1926 the poorer members of the Italian youth organizations have been sent to summer camps for periods of 20-30 days. These camps, which have been increasing year by year, are situated in the country, at the sea-side, in the mountains, on lakes and rivers or near thermal springs where natural water cures are available. Children are sent to one or the other according to their health conditions and physical requirements. Some of the "camps," which are called "summer colonies," are not made up of tents or temporary structures, but are large, modern permanent buildings, with pools, gymnasias, etc., accommodating several thousand children at a time. The following table shows how this activity of the G.I.L. has gained in importance since 1926:

Year	Number of Camps	Number of Children
1926	107	60,000
1927	410	80,000
1928	434	84,000
1929	571	103,000
1930	680	110,000
1931	1,197	236,000
1932	1,621	314,000
1933	2,022	386,000
1934	2,492	471,000
1935	3,128	533,000
1936	3,821	653,000
1937	4,240	744,000
1938	4,357	772,000

Many children of Italians living abroad are invited to spend part of their summer in their country of origin. Their passages are paid and they are accompanied to Italy by group leaders and remain at one of the seaside or mountain camps for two weeks or more. At the end of their stay selected groups are brought together in Rome and are allowed a final period of 20 days at "Campo Mussolini." Recently four more camps of this type were added.⁴

In 1937, Mr. Vernon McKenzie, Director of the School of Journalism at the University of Washington, summed up his impression of one of these camps, which he had occasion to visit, in an article in *World Affairs Interpreter*: "I doubt whether I would make a good Fascist," stated Mr. McKenzie, "probably Fascism does not suit the Anglo-Saxon make-up. I have been extremely critical during the past few years of various kinds of Fascism. For this reason it gives me pleasure to be able whole-souledly and honestly to write about a phase of Fascism which I can genuinely commend."

The foreigner who undertakes a study of the Italian youth movement should bear in mind the words of another American who commented on some of the aspects of social legislation in Italy and concluded, after a very favorable review, that "what is a good and proper method for one country is not necessarily good for another country—one man's meat is very often another man's poison." Thus while many aspects of Italy's youth movement constitute truly progressive innovations that might find profitable application in other countries, it should not be forgotten that the G.I.L. was created for the Italian youth, in relation to the economic and social conditions existing in Italy and in conformity with the principles of the Fascist State.

⁴ *Italy Today: The Youth Movement*—Outline Studies Series II, No. 7, July, 1939—Italian Library of Information—595 Madison Avenue, New York City.

The Story of a History Club

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For years I considered the possibility of developing social responsibility in an organized group of intelligent students. My idea was that by beginning club experiences where classroom experiences end, my pupils might better learn to practice the skills of the effective citizen. Yet, never during this period of hesitation did I make a move to realize the possibility. I lacked the temerity to propose that students join a club which would mean more work, but no

more credit toward the coveted diploma. Also, it seemed to me that a club initiated by the pupils themselves would probably be successful from start. Those who are experienced in club management know that many clubs survive by strength of the teacher's personality, rather than by pupil interest based upon a positively felt need. Accordingly, without regard for my own feelings, I resolved never to suggest the club idea myself.

Then began a period of watchful and hopeful waiting. I was watching for a sign of more than forced or transient interest, and hoping that those who so obediently and patiently sat before me, day after day, would eventually sense a need for the organization I had in mind, and be stirred to action.

One cold winter afternoon, in January, 1933, four boys who were members of my class in twelfth-grade American history, came to my room to request an interview. These boys, Joseph, Morty, Leonard, and Charles, had come to ask the very question I had been waiting to hear, "Will you be our sponsor if we form an American history club?" Controlling my feeling of elation, I asked, "Why do you wish to form such a club?"

Joe, who appeared to have been chosen spokesman, answered, "Well, we like history, and we think there are many things a club can do that a class can't do, such as visiting places in town, for example, or having important outside speakers talk to us, or like making a study of the problems of our town and trying to do something about them."

"I can see you have done some thinking on this proposition," I said, "and I shall be glad to act as your leader. But remember, four boys, no matter how enthusiastic, cannot make a club. You must do one thing more before we plan our organization. Discuss the idea with other students who may be interested, and if you can locate ten or fifteen who will support you, come back in a few days, and we will make definite arrangements to set the club in motion."

I was not at all certain that they would return with favorable reports; but they did.

PHILOSOPHY OF THE FOUNDERS

First they insisted that there should be but two qualifications for membership: interest in history and governmental problems, and maturity of outlook. The former excluded the habitual joiner, whose interest seldom transcends promotion of himself; the latter automatically excluded sophomores, and has operated in practice to eliminate all but a few juniors. "We are not interested in numbers," they pointed out. "We want only such members as are willing to work to make the club a success, and to refrain from the usual foolishness of clubs made up of immature students." These ideas eventually became part of the constitution, which says, "Seniors and juniors may become members of this club, provided they have a true, honest, and sincere interest in the club's work."

Next, the founders turned their attention to the matter of attendance. Spasmodic attendance characterized the school clubs with which they were acquainted, and they were all conscious of the harmful effect of such a condition on a serious-minded group. In the minutes of an early (1933) meeting, this idea found expression in the following unanimous resolu-

tion: "Members shall be expelled if, having no valid reason for doing so, they do not attend two consecutive meetings." The soundness and wisdom of this regulation has been demonstrated many times during the years of the club's existence.

Another thing insisted upon by the original group was a constitution. I pointed out that many clubs met early deaths because of time-wasting arguments over unimportant items in a constitution; and that, even if we should survive our constitution-making, we would probably file it away and forget we had it. I ended by saying that to make a constitution and forget it would be to violate the cardinal principle of constitutional government; namely, strict adherence to a written constitution.

"Perhaps you are right," one of them parried. "But don't you believe that a history club, of all clubs, should have a good written constitution? And when it is once approved, don't you believe we should make it our business to see that it is kept effective?"

Here was proof that those young democrats knew their own minds. I surrendered; for why should I put obstacles in the way of ambitious and intelligent American senior high school students? The passage of time has exposed by own ignorance; they were right and I was wrong.

Finally, they proposed that high standards must be set for all programs. Better to have none at all, they contended to have inferior programs, carelessly or perfunctorily presented. Because new members were expected to make worth-while contributions, the constitution delegated to the program committee "full power to place active members, including the officers of the club, on the program, as it may see fit."

MAKING THE CONSTITUTION

Soon after the originators of the club approached me, we held our first meeting. Charles, who acted as temporary chairman, explained plans and purposes, and the members present elected a committee charged with the duty of presenting, to the next meeting, a constitution for discussion and approval.

The constitution, as finally approved, probably varies little from the usual, except that it contains in concrete form the specific ideas which the founders hoped would be controlling factors in operating a successful club. Some expressions of their philosophy have been mentioned; but one or two more will add emphasis. For example, Article III, Section 2 says, "No officer of another school club is eligible to hold office in this club." This is a pedagogical principle upon which practically all teachers and writers interested in clubs will agree. The interesting feature is that the principle was stated by the constitution makers themselves. As they put it, "We want our officers to give their complete attention to our club. Too many students hold so many school offices that they do justice to none of them."

I do not claim that no other club has thought of this; it is unique only in that it is a concrete expression of youthful wisdom. Another interesting clause is, "The duty of the President shall be to . . . enforce a due observance of this Constitution and of Parliamentary Rules." Still another provides that applications for membership "must be approved by a Social Science teacher." And, the first amendment says that, "Postgraduates may be associate members . . . and may vote on all questions, but may not hold office."

In January, 1934, the club decided that the original constitution, in the handwriting of the chairman of the constitution committee, should be framed and placed on the wall of our meeting room. So it came to pass that the Constitution of the United States and the club constitution hang side by side on the club-room wall. As I look at both, I sometimes wonder which has the more practical significance, a work done by the fathers, long ago, or the one done by the students themselves.

MEMBERSHIP

Since only juniors and seniors are admitted to membership and because few juniors join, we have practically a new club every year. Juniors of more than average ability and maturity, who have served their apprenticeship the previous year, become the nucleus of the new club. In the fall, usually before the work of organizing the school is completed, one of these old members will come to me and ask, "When is the club going to get started? I think we should start early."

This is my cue for the selection of a temporary leader so I counter with my stock reply, "Well, will you take last year's roll, make a list of junior members, and arrange for them to meet in my room?" In due time the first meeting is held, with the group resolving itself into a committee charged with the duty of recruiting new members.

Prospective members are required to fill out applications. The application form, designed by the founders, has now (1939) been filled out by the sixth generation of applicants. In addition to indicating his name, class, and course, the applicant must state in detail his particular interest in political science and government, and why; he must agree to abide by all rules and regulations, and promise to take an active part in club affairs. Only such applicants as are "recommended unconditionally" by a social studies teacher, and approved by the membership committee, are admitted.

ATTENDANCE

Attendance has from the first been given careful attention by club officers, members, and the advisor, the nature of our programs being such that, if we are to be successful, regular attendance is mandatory. For example, once each month we have a speaker

of local, state, or national reputation. These men cannot be expected to take time from their business unless we guarantee them an audience; but we cannot guarantee that audience unless we have reasonable assurance of regular attendance.

To make regular attendance more feasible, meetings are held every two weeks, rain or shine, on Thursdays, at 2:30 o'clock in the afternoon. To this we make no exceptions. On one occasion we refused to accept the services of a speaker of national reputation because he was available on a Wednesday only. The reason for such action is simply that we make a tacit agreement with our members that meetings will be held at certain pre-arranged hours, and that they must therefore reserve such hours for club activity. If we expect members to keep their agreements, we who are officers and advisors must keep ours.

Naturally, there are those who must be absent on occasions; but the number is materially reduced by action of the secretary. Any member who is absent from the meeting is required to present a reason acceptable to the secretary. If he does, he is marked "excused," and the constitutional penalty does not apply. To those who fail to obtain advance absence permission, he sends a note of inquiry, following it with a personal visit.

TRADITIONS

Consciously throughout the club's existence an attempt has been made to illustrate the power of history, by showing how some past event may be utilized to influence present action. In so doing a number of traditions have been developed, among which are: regular attendance by office holders; excellence of programs, and continual effort to improve past standards.

In the matter of regular attendance by office holders, an examination of the record reveals that over a period of five years our president never once failed to attend a regularly scheduled meeting. At no time has he been absent from any meeting, unless for serious illness. Thus have we built up the tradition that to be an officer of our History Club means to accept responsibility. Each succeeding generation of members has strengthened that tradition, until today it materially aids the operation of the club. Last year on two occasions officers did not appear in school during regular school hours; but at meeting time after school they were at their regular posts. To one of these, I exclaimed, "Why, you look ill; you weren't in school today. What are you doing here now?" To which he answered simply, "Well, I didn't want to break the tradition."

It is hardly necessary to add that such extreme devotion to the traditional is not advocated as a duty; nevertheless, there is manifested here the great power history may have in the every-day experience of a modern high school student.

A second tradition was born of the human desire of each new group of members to surpass the work done by those of the past. The problem for them is, How can we better what they did? What can we do that they did not do? So each year some outstanding activity is planned. Once it was a famous speaker; next, a banquet to celebrate our fifth birthday, in which the alumni participated; another time a well planned visit to a session of the state legislature, and last year a history tour of our section of Connecticut. What will be the next outstanding event has not yet germinated in the minds of the new officers; but such is the power of history over us that I can predict it will equal or surpass what has been done before.

The third tradition, relating to club programs, transcends in importance all the rest, and for that reason its story will be told by itself. Effective pupil participation in club activities, has been simplified by the tradition of having our programs well planned and carefully executed.

PROGRAMS

All programs are in charge of a committee, whose chairman is elected by the club. Its members, with the exception of the president and vice-president (who serve ex-officio) are selected by the president from a list of volunteers, which is usually large enough to insure a wise selection. The committee's first duty is to arrange a regular time and place for meeting. This done, they meet without the club adviser, once each week. Their deliberations are restricted only by the fact that they are expected to report the nature of their planned program well in advance, and that under no circumstances are they to invite outside speakers without first consulting the adviser. With these exceptions, they are given complete freedom of action.

One might infer that difficulties would arise in the matter of securing outside speakers, since capable men, preoccupied with their own affairs are assumed to be indifferent to student requests. The fact is, that during our entire history we have met no refusal, and the adviser has never made a single preliminary arrangement with a prospective speaker.

Our regular programs follow three general patterns: student programs, faculty programs, and speakers obtained outside the school. One student program planned, prepared, and executed by the students themselves, is scheduled each month. Ideas, assignments of student speakers, arrangement of topics, and presentation of material are primarily the responsibility of the program committee. The adviser acts only when called upon, or in rare cases of emergency.

These student meetings discuss a wide variety of topics. The following, taken from minutes covering a number of years, will serve as examples:

America in the Far East
Our Town Form of Government
Recognition of Russia
Party Machines
Socialism
The New Deal
The United States and the Next War
Strong-mayor Type of City Government
Japan and Naval Equality
Old-Age Pensions
The Supreme Court and the President
Neutrality
Sit-down Strikes
The Ludlow Bill

Each problem was presented by three or four students, who laid a factual foundation for discussion, which was followed by questions put to speakers by the members. The question periods are usually animated and thoroughly enjoyed.

No topic is avoided because of its controversial nature; but every effort is made to secure an all-sided presentation. No member is "gagged." Our very few communist members have always been allowed to expose their theories to the light of democratic ideology. Our one student with fascist notions was encouraged in his attempt to convince thoughtful youths that personal freedom should be subordinated to the glory of the state in the hands of an all-powerful leader. At no time has the club taken action on controversial issues. Individuals are free agents; the club stands only for the opportunity to gain experience in the democratic way of living.

One type of student program deserves special consideration—the annual meeting devoted to the study and practice of parliamentary procedure. The first of the series was held in November, 1933, and because the club takes pride in its ability to follow parliamentary rules, and because visitors are invariably impressed in its skill, the study and practice of the art of controlling and participating in organized meetings has been continued. Sometimes a student with special aptitude is designated to act as official parliamentarian, charged with the duty of spotting errors and ruling on matters in dispute. Members of the club, when invited, visit home-rooms during the home-room period meeting. Apparently our reputation for careful study of the rules of procedure is spreading; for recently I was requested to select a member of the club to act as parliamentarian for the junior class Senate.

In the second type of program, we make infrequent use of faculty members. Occasionally, the principal may talk on the value of club membership, or the club's place in the general school program. Or a member of the history department may discuss youth and government, politics as a career, or recent social trends.

One meeting each month an outside speaker of

local or national reputation, deals with a topic of general interest. Local men have included the first selectman, town counsel, mayor, judge of the city court, superintendent of schools, chairman of the school board, editor of the local newspaper, and the state representative, together with such nationally known men as Owen Lovejoy, Upton Close, Stanley High, and Congressman Alfred N. Phillips, Jr. Speakers are asked to limit the main part of their discourse to thirty minutes, which gives ample opportunity for questions from members. At no time is there a scarcity of questions; but the program committee prepares a few in advance as insurance against an embarrassing silence when the question period is reached. More interesting than these prepared questions are others which are spontaneously put by the members. The best record was made in March, 1935, by a speaker dealing with European dictatorships. He was bombarded with queries for an hour and five minutes after our usual closing time.

STUDY OF THE COMMUNITY

Two serious problems facing our community have been studied by the club. One, peculiar to our locality, is consolidation of the town and city governments; the other is poor relief. These studies, since they progressed no farther than the study stage, have resulted in no changes or recommendations for changes; but they were valuable, I believe, for the information imparted to individual members, and for the opportunity to meet the mayor, town selectmen, town counsel, and other such officials.

Perhaps the most significant community contact, to date, was made in April, 1937, when the entire club journeyed by bus to the state Capitol, and viewed a lively session of our state legislature. The project originated in the mind of our local representative, who, after addressing club members on state legislative duties and activities, was sufficiently impressed by their serious and intelligent attitude to invite them to come to the Assembly and see for themselves what it was all about. When his invitation was accepted, he volunteered to make all arrangements for our reception at the Capitol.

An elected committee of active club members was put in charge of the trip. All plans were carefully made. The principal had to be interviewed, since we intended to be absent from school for a day. A bus had to be engaged. Members who expected to go had to signify their intention, get a permit slip signed by their parents, and pay bus fare in advance. Lunch had to be considered, for, "When and where do we eat?" was a paramount question.

At last, on April 7, 1937, thirty-nine enthusiastic members, with three teachers from the history department, left the high school at 8:30 o'clock, bound for the Capitol, seventy miles away. Once there, we proceeded immediately to the hall of the House of

Representatives. Here the girls took seats in the gallery; the boys were given the courtesy of the floor, and allowed to take empty seats or find standing room along the wall. The session was spirited, interesting, and informative; just before adjournment, at noon, we witnessed the passage of a bill, without a single dissenting vote, providing for a merit system for state officials.

Lunch with members of the legislature in the legislative restaurant was a stimulating experience. All legislators expressed a friendly interest in us. Some shook their heads in wonderment at seeing school girls and school boys showing an intelligent interest in legislative business. One went so far as to say that as long as there are such groups as ours concerned about the working of government, our democracy is perfectly safe. As this man was not our local representative, the cynic may not impute to him a political motive.

Afternoon found us attending a committee hearing. Since the day we had selected was known as Stamford Day, all matters before the committee were of interest to Stamford students. Bills pertaining to civil service for town policemen, changes in town meeting, and consolidation of town and city government were some of the matters considered.

From all sides came favorable reaction to our excursion. As a result of the impression we made, a group of men, influential in state affairs, offered a prize to the club member writing the best essay on the town meeting. Parents of the pupils expressed their conviction that the trip had unusual value. Every student who took part gave evidence of having had a pleasant and profitable experience.

THE COMMUNITY STUDIES US

Since we have emphasized community study as part of our program we raised no objection to being studied by the community, for it meant that we had become sufficiently identified with the community to attract attention and to warrant investigation. It came about in this way.

Early in the year 1936, the local chapter of the League of Women Voters began an investigation of community institutions. Their primary object being to obtain an increase in the local school budget, they spent a major portion of their time in the school system. Consequently, a committee from the League was assigned to visit one of our meetings, study our methods and evaluate them in terms of community benefit from the citizen's viewpoint. The program on the day of their visit was a mock Senate session, discussing the topic, "How Can the United States Pay its National Debt?" The club president assumed the part of Vice-President Garner. Club members represented themselves as senators. The entire plan of action had been formulated well in advance, and each senator knew exactly when to speak and what

to say. Extemporaneous remarks were permitted from any member of the club who could gain the floor in accord with senate rules. Spice was added to the program by a filibuster, presented in traditional filibuster style. Our visitors were obviously sincere in their favorable comment on the program.

THE SPONSOR

If we are to develop the democratic spirit in any given school activity, the first requirement, I think,

is a completely democratic atmosphere. Personal pupil experience must play the major role in the educative process. In a teacher-dominated situation, where planning, policy, and program begin and end with the sponsor, little development can be expected. String-worked puppets never sense the drama in which they participate. Parrots never assimilate the ideas they express. Throughout the club's history, therefore, the place assumed by the sponsor has been simply that of aid, friend, and counselor.

"Let Them in on It!"

NATHANIEL PLATT

Newtown High School, Queens, New York City

For the last twenty years or so, remarkable progress has been made in the adoption of new and varied teaching devices. Yet it seems that we have not fully capitalized on the many potentialities of all these for better teaching. We, as teachers, play the part of magicians. Our pedagogical devices are our tricks; our students, the subjects. However, though we take on the semblance of the magician, we should differ from him, I believe, by showing our subjects how our tricks are performed. In short, we should encourage our students to "see into" our pedagogical devices. For some time, I have been engaged in an experiment with my students which utilizes this very technique.

Specifically, here is an illustration of the procedure. In assigning homework one day I gave as the first question: "What are the abuses and evils of stock speculation?" I then asked: "On the basis of the first assigned question, what would you expect the next assigned question to be?" The answer was readily given: "What attempts have been made to correct these evils?" My next query was—and this is the process: "Class, why didn't I merely dictate the second question; why did I ask you to give it?" The response was that my purpose was to make them think clearly and logically.

Similarly in another instance, a question calling for a factual answer was asked. This was followed by a thought-provoking question. When the class was asked which question they thought was the better, they chose the second "because that one made us think." The aim was not to have the students evaluate my teaching, but rather to stimulate them to carry on more purposeful thinking, to foster the development of the creative, logical, analytical type of mind. In addition the procedure compels the class to see the basic unity and logic of the lesson; the aim—the driving force—is constantly before them. If this

practice of "seeing into" the questioning is encouraged and persistently followed, the thinkers should almost be able to anticipate what the next question logically should be. Irrelevant questions and answers will be exposed immediately as violating the logic of the lesson.

In an effort to promote intercriticism in my classes, I sometimes inquire: "Why do I call upon you to criticize your classmate's statement? Why don't I evaluate his answer? Shouldn't I be able to judge his answer better than you, since I am the teacher?" After some discussion the subjoined conclusions are reached:

1. That in life we are constantly called upon to criticize various points of view, so that we ought to get practice doing so now.
2. That we have to think our own thoughts through more clearly before we can criticize the thoughts of others.
3. That that type of criticism puts one on the "qui vive."

While it would be both unfortunate and undesirable if adolescents were to question all authority and adopt a purely negative attitude toward teacher and text, yet it must be admitted that too many of our pupils accept too readily, are too eager to make the teacher's opinions their own. To avoid this, to encourage independent reflective thought, I have resorted to still another means with the object of achieving the same end.

In the discussion of controversial topics, students are urged to give all possible points of view. The teacher for the most part keeps his opinions to himself, permitting the students to draw their own conclusions. After considerable discussion the teacher interjects this query: "Why don't I express my point of view on this subject?" Invariably the pupils reply: "Because it wouldn't be fair, since you are the

teacher and some of us would accept your opinion as our own without giving the question much thought." What more can we expect? Are not these youngsters on the road to independent thinking?

It is axiomatic that most of our pupils have exceptionally poor study habits. Most of them try to memorize by rote the facts of history, economics and other subjects, instead of learning through logical associations. To prevent the appalling inefficiency and waste of time inherent in such memorization by mere repetition, the following procedure has merit:

During a lesson on the advantages of large-scale production, students were asked to give what they considered the most outstanding characteristic of this modern phenomenon. After some comment it was generally agreed that "mass production" was the most important benefit. The next question was then put: "What other advantages would you expect from mass production?" "Cheaper prices," came the answer. "What advantages from cheaper prices?" "A higher standard of living." The succeeding questions, in like manner, were built upon the answers given. Finally, the class was asked: "Why don't I merely ask you to give the advantages of large-scale production, instead of developing each in order, one at a time?" Here are their replies:

"Your way is better because it's easier to remember that way."

"You don't have to memorize by heart."

"Even if you should suddenly forget some of the advantages, knowing one you could figure out the rest."

In informal every-day discussions we often make certain points which are forgotten as we proceed with other arguments. Even in heated debates it is often the tendency of an opponent to center his rebuttal against the final statement made. The advantage of summarizing all evidence is quite apparent, since this obliges the opposition to demolish all arguments, not merely the last one. Thus we may buttress our side with several significant points, instead of permitting our adversary to concentrate all his ammunition against one final argument, while he conveniently forgets all the others. A summary, therefore serves as a reminder to him that he must sharpen his wits to refute all the proof offered, if he can! The value of the ability to summarize and generalize in professional and business life must surely be apparent.

Nevertheless, we repeatedly call for summaries in social studies classes without calling pupil attention to their value beyond compact accounts of content. To illustrate, in the aforementioned lesson on large-scale production, this medial summary question was asked: "What effect has large-scale production had upon both the producer and the consumer? The pupil answer included all the advantages of large-scale production. Then in response to what has come to be the inevitable question in my classes: "What

is the value of my last question?" the following information was volunteered:

"It makes one remember."

"It shows you how to organize."

"It helps you see the whole picture instead of just parts of it."

"It's a good idea to summarize your points in everything you do."

How often we throw out motivating questions, designed to rouse interest and enthusiasm in our lessons, without exhausting their possibilities! Why shouldn't pupils "see into" the purpose of our motivation? Why shouldn't they realize that practically every walk of life makes use of the motivating device in one way or another? Why shouldn't it be brought to their attention that the first scene of a motion picture or the emphasized objects in a striking advertisement are forms of motivation; that the doctor's first visit to a new patient is studiously practiced to "motivate" confidence? Our schemes are sound, based upon common practice in real-life situations in all the world around us. Why hide this from our students?

To illustrate again. In teaching the Monroe Doctrine, I asked this motivating question: "Recently a Japanese diplomat said that Japan is carving out a Monroe Doctrine of the East. What did he mean by this statement?" After some discussion, I followed the thought with this query: "In teaching the Monroe Doctrine of 1823, why should I give you that statement accredited to a Japanese diplomat of 1937?" Here are the replies:

"It shows us that the same problems crop up again and again in history."

"It makes us know more about what is happening today."

"It makes us think more clearly."

A very bright student added: "It shows that the Japanese are smart. They are quoting our own history against us."

Another student replied: "It makes the lesson more interesting."

Building upon the last reply, I asked: "Why did the statement of the Japanese diplomat make the lesson more interesting?" And thus the lesson developed.

It would be superfluous to describe further experiments along these same lines—with visual aids, comparative pupil board work and other techniques. I am satisfied that my teaching has been enriched immeasurably since I began taking the class into my confidence. I am convinced that this procedure opens up educational vistas undreamed of before. Above all, such technique should develop the type of mind that masticates thoroughly the content of classroom, text and life, assimilates the important, and spews forth the incoherent and irrelevant, thus producing the truly educated individual.

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

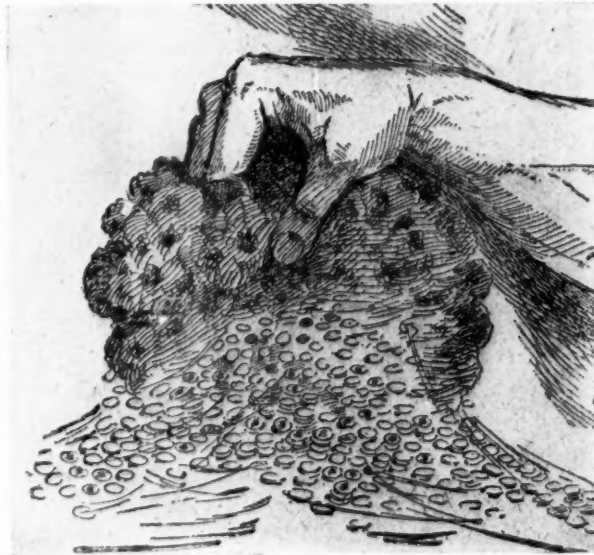
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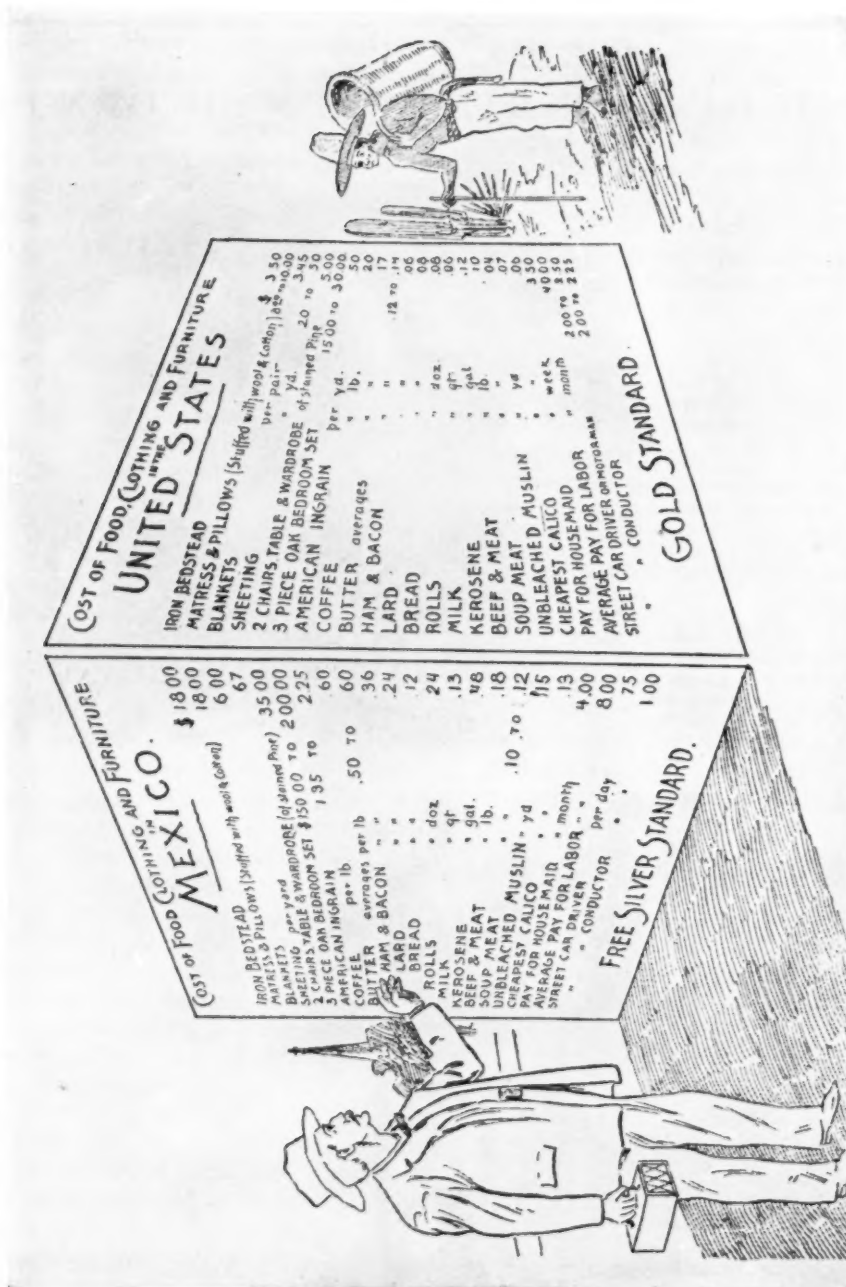
THE END OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

During the latter part of the nineteenth century the rising West with its large output of silver from newly opened mines brought a demand for a free silver standard as opposed to the gold standard. In the press and on the rostrum the merits and handicaps of both systems were discussed. This became the chief issue in the campaign and election of 1896. The drawing is from the popular Free Silver book, *Harvey's Coin's Financial School*, widely used during the campaign. The caption given the above picture was: "Our debts, like a great sponge, come West and soak up the money."



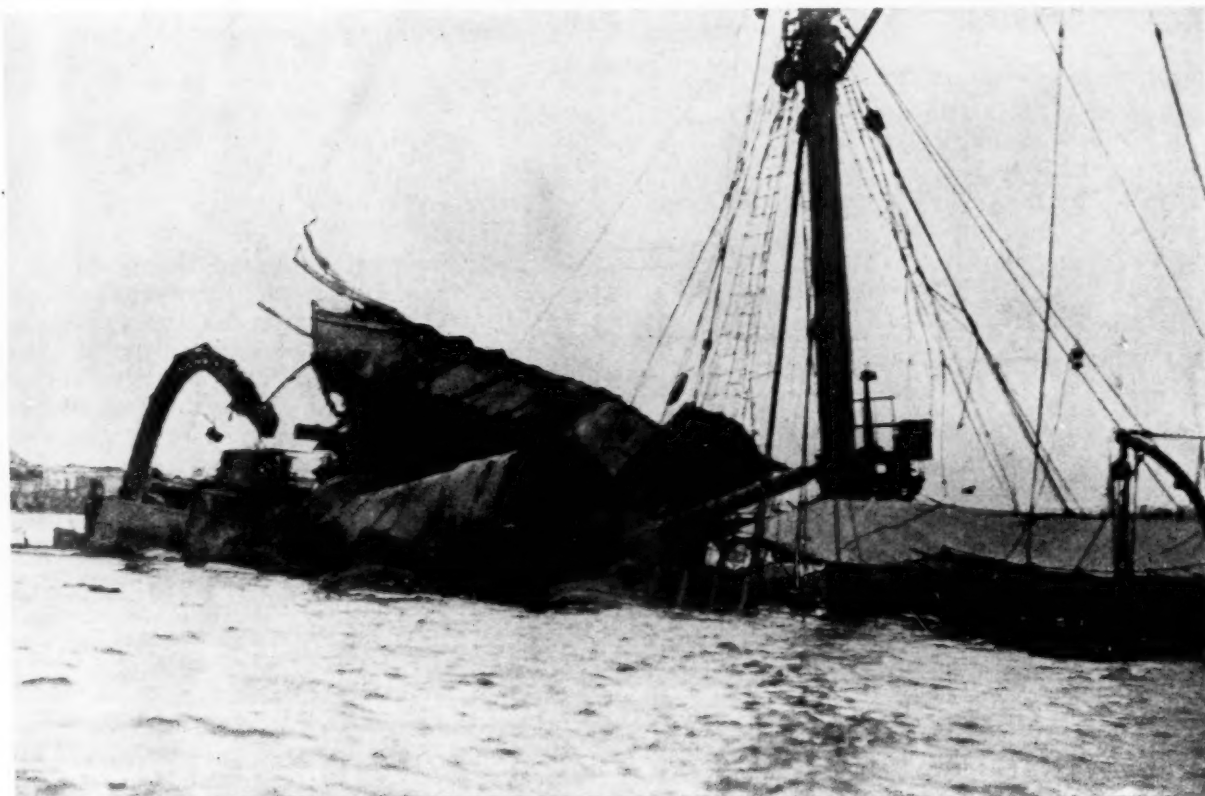
This is another illustration from *Coin's Financial School*: "What it costs a farmer to dine at a first-class restaurant in Chicago" (four bushels of wheat, four of corn).

THE END OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

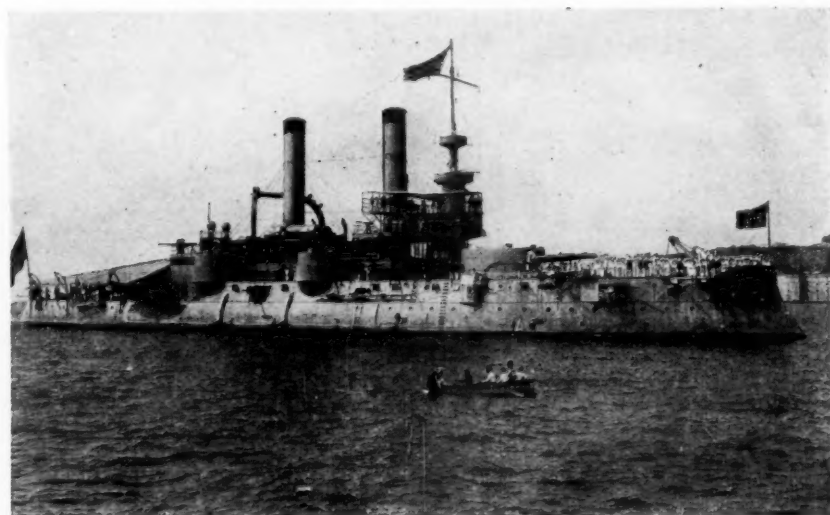


A cartoon from a Gold Standard pamphlet, entitled, "Where Silver Rules." It shows an American workman inspecting a list of high prices and low wages in Mexico; and a Mexican looking at a table of low prices and high wages in the United States.

THE END OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

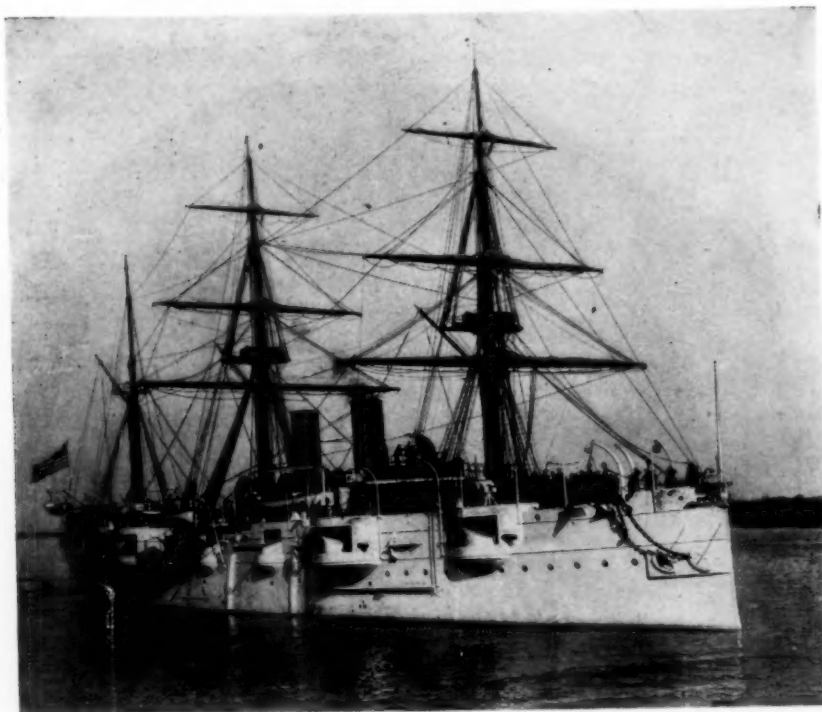


In 1895 a revolution broke out among the people of Cuba against the misrule of the Spanish who controlled the island for centuries. The repressive measures taken by the Spanish government roused the sympathy of the people of the United States for the Cubans. To protect American interests on the island, the United States battleship *Main* was sent to Havana harbor. On the evening of February 15, 1898, a terrific explosion destroyed the vessel and the lives of 266 men. Before the end of April war was declared. This picture shows the shattered hulk of the vessel which protruded above the surface of the water shortly after it was blown up.

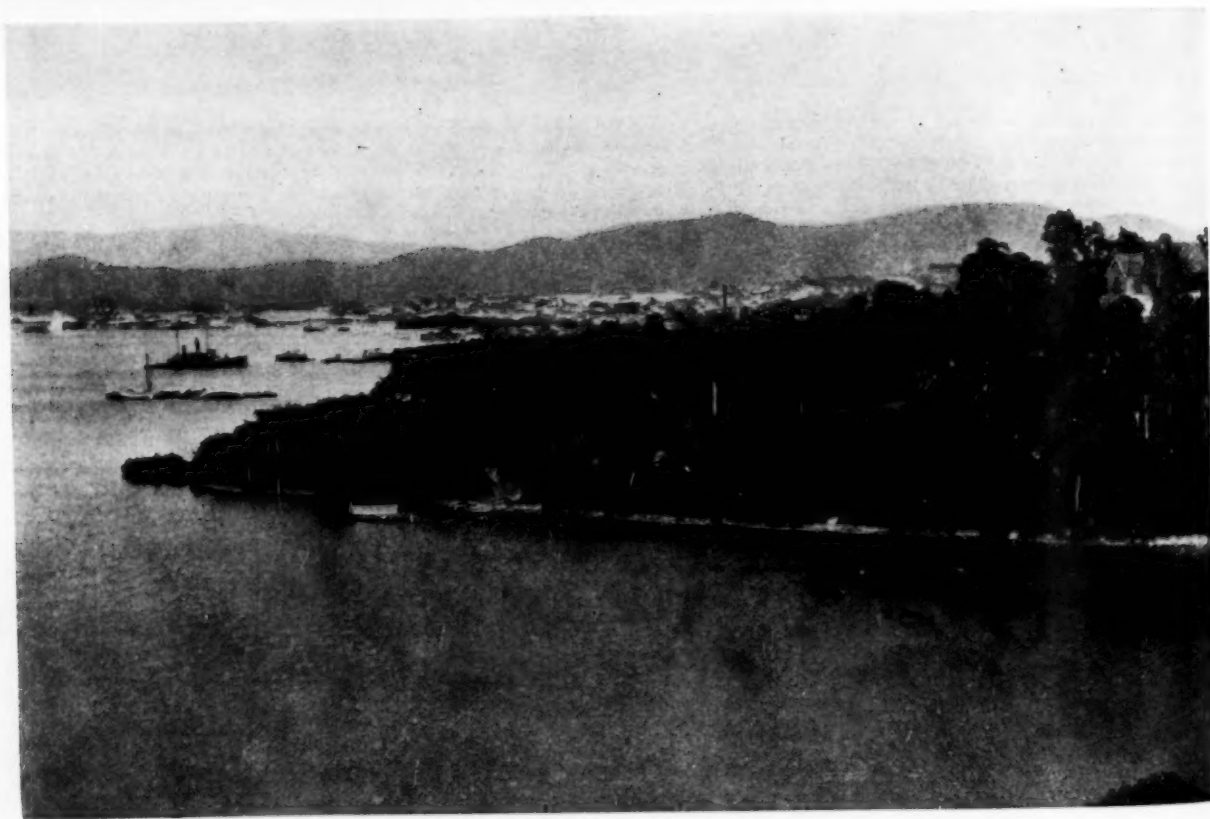


When war became imminent, the United States battleship *Oregon* left San Francisco for a trip of 14,000 miles around Cape Horn to Florida. The long voyage was a potent argument for the construction of a canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

THE END OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY



The United States army was not prepared for the war with Spain. However, the navy was in a much better condition because a program of shipbuilding had been developed since 1882. The cruiser *Newark* was one of the first vessels in the "new navy."



A photograph taken after the close of the war, showing a peace-time view of the city and harbor of Santiago, Cuba, about which most of the land and naval fighting of the Spanish-American War took place.

The Question Method in Teaching History

KENNETH C. COULTER

Principal, Jamesburg High School, Jamesburg, New Jersey

Is there, strictly speaking, a question method that may be properly used in any teaching? Questions and answers have fallen into disrepute. Possibly the reason is that they have been poorly used. I should like to discuss the matter in terms of American history, trying to show that we should not question "questioning" as a teaching device. The methods suggested here, however, can be applied to any history, and in one case at least, have been applied with excellent results.

School and questions have been inextricably interwoven for a long time. In history, as in any subject matter course, questions may be used to a great extent. To make these questions interesting, to make them lead to discussion germane to the lesson; there we have a task of no little magnitude. Consider, however, the difference between asking any class to tell how the Puritans, Pilgrims, or the first settlers of the Ohio Country lived and asking that same class if there is any connection between the method of their living and a present day objection to some legislation which may attempt to regulate wages and hours. To the student of history or to one who has only a casual interest the connection is quite clear. In our background may be found all the seeds of what we are today. In the man of today is something of the man who felled tree after tree until he could build himself a house. If we ask, "What is the connection between the way our people lived and earned (insert your own period before 1900) and what we are today?" we find the results much better than if we content ourselves with, "How did people live in the Ohio Country?" Through either question the knowledge of the lesson may be tested. The recommended question will bring about a greater amount of student interest and that, after all, is worth a great deal. It is not the purpose here to argue the relative merits of different questions. The aim is to illustrate a method of questioning. That this may best be done, we shall look at varied questions on different phases of American History.

From Colonial times we take the question—"What can Americans today learn from the history of Jamestown?" Analyzing the question, its possibilities may be seen. Jamestown, or the settlement, was originally established as a communal project. It so happened that the colony was not successful until each

individual was given his own land and made responsible for his own living. Some student is sure to point out this obvious fact. It is not difficult to see that the discussion may now take many different and interesting angles. What will be the result of present day protective legislation? Will each person look to the other for support or have people changed? One might ask "Have people changed?" The discussion will probably take the trend that the thinking of the pupils has already taken. Whatever happens, 98 per cent of the pupils will do some thinking and, later, will be able to remember something. Not only about Jamestown but also about modern problems.

Do you teach the Constitution? Is it an easy task or a difficult one? Did you ever ask the questions:

1. Why is the Senate more conservative than the House?

2. Should present day Senators be more or less conservative than they were in 1800?

In answering these two questions the pupils must touch on many phases of constitutional history. First, the make-up of the Senate and the House. Second, constitutional amendments. Third, the attitude of the Founding Fathers. Fourth, increase of democracy within a democracy. One further question gives a fairly complete review of the Constitution for your class periods which are devoted to its study. That one question is: "If the Supreme Court should declare a law unconstitutional does that end for all time all action on that law or any other law that might propose the same thing?" Seems a silly question to ask, perhaps, but it will serve its purpose.

One additional example may serve to bring home the point of how our early history may be made interesting by a skillful question. One might ask: "Are there any elements of sameness between Shays' Rebellion and the *penny sales* that occurred in the Middle West during hardest years of our great depression?" Penny sales were used to protect the farmer of the 1930's against losing his farm and implements at a forced sale. When a mortgage was to be foreclosed at a sheriff's sale, the farmers of the neighborhood would gather round and bid the article in at an unbelievably low price. Should any person attempt to force a bid approaching the real value of the farm (or implement) he might find himself ducked in the horse trough or suffering some real physical

harm. The hard pressed farmers of Shays' day simply closed the courts. The farmers of our own times used different methods to accomplish the same results.

Moving on to a later period of our national life, we come to the years of Jackson, Van Buren, and Harrison. After spending some little time on these men and the election which put them into office, the question: "Did the people of this period use their heads or their hearts in electing Presidents?" is an excellent lead-off for a very valuable discussion. Each pupil must, it is assumed, be able to back up his or her discussion with some facts. Jackson did not like the Bank of the United States and so he was elected a second time, or was it because he had whipped the British at New Orleans? Van Buren was, possibly, a statesman and so he was elected, or was it because he was kind to Peggy Eaton? Was Harrison President because he stood for something, or because he stood for nothing? You see how it goes. A good question is like a rabbit—very prolific.

The Civil War period is one that lends itself well to this type of questioning. Questions comparing the powers of President Lincoln and President Franklin D. Roosevelt and on the events that made the granting of these powers necessary will not be unproductive of excellent results. The study of any war period is usually interesting to all children. We might pose Franklin's statement, "There never was a good war or a bad peace" as a question. As the student begins to think of Antietam and Gettysburg as compared to the causes of the war, he will have some basis for an answer. The government of the Confederate States is usually considered during any unit on the Civil War. A good question here is: "Was the Confederate Constitution better in any way than the Constitution of the United States?" This question will set the pupil to work and he will find that the Confederates had some thoughts written into

their constitution that we might well add today.

Every teacher of history will agree that, as the time line of history comes nearer and nearer the memory span of the person affected, history becomes more interesting. However, the more recent story of our national life needs a great deal of careful attention lest we fall into the habit of insisting that, since the material in question has a direct bearing on the life of the student, he should have a definite interest in it. In this day of the Dies investigation; at a time when the menace to our democracy is an evident fact, we must be careful that the greatest surety for democracy, intelligent progressive movement in keeping with our times, is not forgotten. When, in a study of the 1890's, one reads the arguments for and against the income tax, one may ask: "How many laws are accepted today as quite sound that have been rejected in the past because they smacked of Communism or some other ism?" This question may lead the pupil to some rather mature thought on present issues.

We might find example after example where some skillful teacher has made history live by the use of some seemingly innocent question. Were the list of examples made so long that it would reach to somewhere and back again, some critic would insist that only the interesting phases had been selected. If we were to concede that the critic is correct, we could still insist that the procedure suggested above is good. It is a truism that if interest is once aroused many hard knocks can be sustained before that interest will be crushed.

And so it goes. Questioning, when used with some imagination, loses the old stand-up-recite-sit-down atmosphere. It becomes instead a teaching device of real value that no progressive teacher may be ashamed to use.

Documentary Films for Social Studies

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The importance of the documentary film as a teaching aid in the senior high school social studies is a problem that is just now beginning to engage the serious attention of educators. Since the importation of this cinematic form from Britain, and since its coming of age in America with the production of the government's "The River," the possibilities of its use in civic, social, and economic education have grown tremendously.

One may well ask, why is it so important to the social studies? The question can be answered without

discussion by attempting to enumerate a list of films that would be acceptable for use in a high school social studies classroom. The lack of such material is due in a large measure to the fact that the social studies field has been dilatory in demanding such aids and in suggesting the sort of materials that could be presented in this form. As far as being a visual aid, it is most certainly within the power of the well-chosen documentary film to lend an unprecedented urgency to the social studies unit.

There is yet an even greater reason for serious

consideration of the documentary; with the democratic nations of the world so suddenly conscious of the need for citizenship education, the social studies field is feeling the brunt of the demand that education do something to insure the perpetuation of democratic ideals and institutions. Each day and each new scare-head in the morning newspaper lend greater significance to the successful teaching of the social studies.

WHAT IS DOCUMENTARY?

The problem of defining the documentary film plagues many a film producer, cinema critic, and visual educationist. In truth, it is a question upon which a great many people in the field have been unable to reach a common agreement. The very nature of the documentary makes it difficult and almost unwise to blueprint the upper and lower limits, to say how far it shall extend into the field of the newsreel and reportage film on one hand, and how much of the theatrical photoplay formula it includes on the other hand. It is, in any event, a term which must be defined with care in order that its ambiguity shall not become a catch-all for the entire family of film shorts.

The documentary film has been called "a film of real life," "a dramatic statement of facts," "propaganda film," and "a film of social significance," but in all these generalizations there is little to distinguish the documentary from other film forms, no difference drawn between it and a newsreel, or a theatrical photoplay. Perhaps this is because each of these forms has contributed something essential to the structure of the documentary.

One of the most authoritative descriptions of the documentary is as follows:

Among these forms, somewhat beyond the simple descriptive terms of the teaching film, more imaginative and expressive than the specific publicity picture, deeper in meaning and more skillful in style than the newsreel, wider in observation than the travel picture or lecture film, more profound in implication and reference than the plain interest picture, there lies Documentary.¹

Mr. Rotha, as the acknowledged leader of the British documentary school, is well qualified to draw these distinctions between the documentary and other film forms. If one is conscious of the differences such as Mr. Rotha draws, and if one fully appreciates the meaning of the terms used, it is possible to synthesize a simplified definition of the documentary which might read as follows: *The documentary film is a faithful dramatization of the social implications contained in an immediate fact.*

¹ Paul Rotha, *Documentary, Film*, p. 68.

"The River," which tells its powerful story of the conservation problems of the Mississippi drainage basin, is an excellent example of a film built in accordance with the best documentary principles. "The River" is not an instructional film in the sense that it imparts factual knowledge, neither is it a photoplay in the sense that it develops a dramatic plot. Through the technical media of photography, editing, narration, and music, this film conveys an emotional sum or impression of a social problem that must be solved.

PROBABLE USEFULNESS

At this point one can readily see that the very nature of the documentary film makes it adaptable for use only with late-adolescent and adult age groups. The construction of the documentary film with all its nuances of statement and implication, and by its subtle emotional effects, precludes any possibility of its effective use on the elementary grade or junior high school levels.

The growing consensus of opinion of persons familiar with the documentary is that it represents the democracy's most effective way of stimulating a desirable social consciousness in its citizens. If, as it is universally stated, the function of a democratic education is to prepare the individual for effective citizenship, then the use of the documentary and its inherent possibilities for motivation must be weighed by the school.

The social studies, through lack of physical phenomena demonstrations, intriguing tools and apparatus, often becomes the school's least vital curriculum. It is this very lack of motivation that the documentary seems able to supply on the senior high school level.

By its very definition, the documentary film is not a vehicle for factual knowledge. This end is easily achieved through other means which may or may not be visual. The documentary is most valuable for its emotional effect; not the fleeting and useless emotional effect of the theatrical photoplay, but an effect that is worth while for the classroom, one that can be easily directed into channels of successful work. It is essentially the type of film that arouses in its audience the desire to "do something." Until such desires and such feelings are aroused in the student, there is little hope of seeing any permanent results come out of the social problems that are posed in high school classes.

Films like "The River," "Hands," "Five Faces of Malaya," "The Plow that Broke the Plains," "Four Barriers," and "Shipyard" will find a multiplicity of uses in the senior high school social studies. Classes in economics, sociology, civics, history, geography, and the various integrated social studies courses will become alive and meaningful to the student after beginning his study with a film which portrays the

significance and the urgency of the social problem involved in the assignment.

"The River," for instance, will provide a powerful driving force for a student's understanding of the economics of conservation. "Four Barriers" will lend meaning to Switzerland as a geographical entity or as a typical illustration of the barriers which define nations and social groups. So it will be with others that might be suggested. The well-chosen documentary film will be the motivating force that opens the mind of the student to the real significance of the problems of a democratic society.

LIMITATIONS AS TO USE

Two factors now present may tend to limit the use of the documentary in American schools. The greatest of these is the small supply of documentary subjects available to schools. One has only to search through an annotated list of the thirty to forty subjects offered under the classification of documentary to see that it is a difficult task to select more than twenty that are suitable for school use. Thus far, the small demand for booking of the documentary films has not made it too difficult to obtain them.

To schools in some sections this number may be decreased further by objection to the British accent

of commentators and actors in some of the films imported from Britain. This is particularly true in, for example, "North Sea," a film containing quite a bit of direct recording of the natives' conversation. To still other schools this accent may be desirable for its ability to show the peoples of other nations.

Both of these are factors whose limiting influence will diminish as time goes on. More films are being produced, more are being planned, and a better technical job of recording is being done. Even with conditions as they are now, there should be nothing sufficiently decisive to prevent the alert teacher from breathing life and reality into the social studies through the discriminate use of the documentary film.

SOURCES OF DOCUMENTARY FILMS AND INFORMATION

1. Association of School Film Libraries, Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.
2. Civic Films, Inc., 19 West 44th Street, New York City.
3. Walter O. Gutlohn, Inc., 35 West 45th Street, New York City.
4. Museum of Modern Art Film Library, 11 East 53rd Street, New York City.
5. United States Film Service, 14th and G Streets, Washington, D.C.

Maps as an Activity in History Teaching

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The popularity of activity programs, emphasizing as they do a considerable amount of construction work, lends increased attention to map-making in history courses. Teachers have long realized that pupils gain more from the actual drawing of a few well chosen maps, than from the study of the larger number contained in textbooks and historical atlases, valuable though they may be. Recent methods in classroom teaching call for more learning by doing in map work as a part of the new emphasis given to written and construction exercises in place of the old oral recitation. In this the notebook has a prominent place, and since the drawing of maps forms an important part of notebook work there follows an increased attention to map making itself. It is felt that such forms of activity give to the student not only certain information in a very impressive way, but likewise permit exercise in valuable and essential skills. Maps in addition, serve as a realistic motivation to the subject matter of history, and also aid in correlating the work with the subject of geography.

In many classrooms, maps made by the pupils are far from stereotyped, for their drawing under a

stimulating and inspiring teacher can be made a real challenge to the pupil, and can result in a rich variety of expression. For example, in drawing "Europe of 1914," instead of merely indicating the political boundaries by giving a different color for the various countries, the pupil may through a little research, find the flags of the more important nations, and thus label each with its proper flag. The result need not be artistic nor ostentatious, yet the work may be done neatly and be of real value in stimulating interest. Likewise, a representation of commercial towns and trade routes in the thirteenth century need not consist in the drawing of mere drab lines, but can be labeled with the products carried in these lanes of traffic. A map of Europe at the zenith of Napoleon's power will give an interesting opportunity to the students to use their imagination. Where one pupil would display the territory under the sway of Napoleon as a hand stretching out over Europe, another might vision the expansion of the French Empire as an octopus seizing the various regions in its tenacious grasp. Thus the art of cartoon drawing may be combined with map making. When showing

the voyages of discovery, the student might adorn the borders with small portraits of Columbus, Vasco da Gama, Cabot, Vespucci, Magellan, Drake, and Cartier, which he may obtain in old history books no longer in use. The class can find in this type of activity a most interesting exercise of the imagination as the work need not fit into the conventional mould.

The following list of maps recommended for pupil activity in ancient, medieval, and modern European and American history, while attempting to include the more important, is intended merely to be suggestive. Although the list may well be too lengthy for a particular curriculum, it perhaps affords the instructor the opportunity to select what he considers the most significant, bearing in mind the time allotted to the course itself, and the amount of emphasis he wishes to place on this form of activity. A listing of map exercises must always be a selective process. Any choice may perhaps omit some maps which the individual teacher might consider highly desirable and include some which he may feel not of equal importance. However, there is possibly real value in viewing the map-making program in world history in its totality, and a list such as the one given below may therefore be of assistance to teachers in planning the map activities in world history, or in the various individual courses.

ANCIENT HISTORY

1. *Early Civilization*

Show first Empires: Egyptian Empire 15th century B.C.; Babylonian 2100 B.C. Indicate by broken line Aegean or Minoan civilization. Locate: Thebes and Memphis, Heliopolis, Babylon, Ninevah, Assur, Ur, Knossos, Jerusalem, Tyre, Sidon, Damascus, Boghaz-Keni. Locate the following seas: Red, Mediterranean, Aegean, Black, Caspian, and the Persian Gulf.

2. *Ancient Oriental Empires*

Chaldaeian Empire; Kingdom of Egypt in the 6th century B.C.; Lydian Empire; Median Empire. Indicate by line Assyrian Empire at its greatest extent, 7th Century, B.C.

3. *Persian Empire at its Height*

Give extent of Persian Empire.
Show Road from Sardis to Susa.

4. *Greece in Fifth Century*

Show European and Asiatic Greece. Label divisions: Euboea, Boeotia, Attica, Laconia, etc.

5. *Ancient Hellenic and Phoenician World*

Locate Greek homeland and colonies; Phoenician homeland and colonies. Designate Mediterranean, Adriatic, Aegean, and Black Seas.

6. *Empire of Alexander the Great, 323 B.C.*

Show the empire at its greatest extent. Draw the line of marches of Alexander and voyages of Nearchus.

7. *Hellenistic World about 300 B.C.*

Show kingdoms of Cassander, Seleucus, Lysimachus, Ptolemy.

8. *Expansion of Rome in Italy*

Indicate boundaries of Roman Power in 509 B.C.; 338 B.C.; 264 B.C. Locate Rome, Ostia, Capua, Neapolis, Beneventum, Venusia, Tarentum, Brundisium, Heraclea, Croton, Locri, Regium.

9. *Expansion of Roman Dominion to 44 B.C.*

Roman Italy before Punic Wars, 264 B.C.; acquisitions to end of Second Punic War 201 B.C.; acquisitions to end of Third Punic War, 133 B.C.; acquisitions to death of Julius Caesar, 44 B.C.

10. *Roman Empire*

Draw Empire at its greatest extent in time of Trajan. Indicate boundaries of Empire at death of Augustus, 14 A.D.

11. *Roman Empire in 4th Century*

Show Prefectures of Gaul, Italy, Illyricum, East. Indicate boundaries of dioceses within the prefectures.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

1. *Barbarian Inroads*

Indicate routes of Visigoths, Vandals, Ostrogoths, Franks, Saxons and Angles, Huns.

2. *Germanic Kingdoms, 525 A.D.*

Show Eastern Roman Empire; Kingdoms of Vandals, Visigoths, Ostrogoths, Franks, Burgundians.

3. *Europe about 600 A.D.*

Show Byzantine Empire; Kingdoms of Franks, Visigoths, and Lombards. Indicate: Picts, Britons, Angles and Saxons. Locate: Whitby, Canterbury, Fulda, Cologne, Trier, Rheims, Tours, Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, St. Gall, Bobbio, Ravenna, Venice, Genoa, Milan, Monte Cassino, Amalfi, Naples, Cordova, Seville, Carthage, Constantinople, Adrianople, Antioch, Damascus, Jerusalem, Alexandria.

4. *The Carolingian Empire*

Give boundaries of Empire of Charlemagne at its greatest extent. Show divisions of the Empire into dominions of Charles the Bold, Louis, and Lothair.

5. *Mohammedan Power about 800 A.D.*

Give extent of Mohammedan power. Show: Caliphates of Cordova, and the Abbasids. Locate Medina, Mecca, Damascus, Baghdad, Cordova, Seville, Toledo.

6. *Europe at Time of the First Crusade*

Locate: Holy Roman Empire, France, indicating Domain of Capetian Kings, Normandy, England, Scotland, Leon, Castile, Aragon, Barcelona, Norman Principalities, States of Church, Poland, Hungary, Croatia, Serbia, Byzantine Empire, territory of Prussians, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Dominion of Seljuk Turks, Emirate of Cairo, Moslem Principalities of the West.

7. *The Crusades*

Draw route of First, Second, Third, and Fourth Crusades. Show County of Edessa, Principality of Antioch, County of Tripoli, Kingdom of Jerusalem.

8. *Commercial Towns and Trade Routes—Western Europe in 13th Century*

Locate: Bristol, Southampton, London, Bruges, Antwerp, Utrecht, Bremen, Hamburg, Lübeck, Danzig, Brunswick, Magdeburg, Leipzig, Ghent, Cologne, Mainz, Trier, Augsburg, Munich, Vienna, Paris, Orleans, Tours, Lyons, Bordeaux, Bayonne, Basil, Milan, Verona, Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Florence, Rome, Naples, Palermo, Messina, Syracuse, Ragusa, Barcelona, Cordova, Granada, Seville, Lisbon. Draw three land routes and three water routes.

MODERN EUROPE

1. *Europe in the Time of Charles V; the 16th Century*

Draw: Holy Roman Empire, Kingdom of Spain. Shade Habsburg possessions. Draw France, Portugal, England, Scotland, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, Poland, Lithuania, Ottoman Empire, Venice, States of the Church.

2. *Europe in 1648*

Draw France, British Isles, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Poland, Ottoman Empire. Give boundaries of the Holy Roman Empire and shade in Brandenburg—Prussia; shade possessions of Austrian Habsburgs. Show United Provinces (Netherlands). Draw Spain and its continental possessions. Give Portugal, Venice, States of the Church.

3. *Europe after the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713*

Draw Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Spain. Give boundaries of Holy Roman Empire, Habsburg possessions, Prussia, Piedmont, France.

4. *Partitions of Poland*

Show three partitions 1772, 1793, 1795, with territory obtained by Austria, Prussia, and Russia.

5. *Europe at Zenith of Napoleon's Power about 1810*

Show territory under direct rule of Napoleon,

dependencies of Napoleon, allies of Napoleon. Indicate Kingdom of Great Britain, Sweden, Russia, Ottoman Empire, and Portugal.

6. *Europe in 1815*

Outline German Confederation. Show Kingdom of Prussia, Austrian Empire, France, the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden-Norway, Switzerland, Kingdom of Sardinia, Papal States, Kingdom of Two Sicilies, Spain, Portugal, Ottoman Empire, Russia.

7. *Unification of Italy, 1859-1870*

Draw the Kingdom of Sardinia in 1859; shade Nice and Savoy (to France, 1860). Give territories united with Kingdom of Sardinia 1859-1860, acquisitions of 1866, acquisitions to 1870. Label Piedmont, Island of Sardinia, Lombardy, Parma, Modena, Tuscany, Romagna, the Marches, Umbria, Kingdom of Two Sicilies, Venetia, Papal States.

8. *Unification of Germany 1866-1871*

Show Kingdom of Prussia prior to 1866, acquisitions of Prussia in 1866, states united to Prussia to form North German Confederation of 1867, states united to North German Confederation to form German Empire, 1871. Draw Alsace-Lorraine, 1871. Label Schleswig, Holstein, Mecklenburg, Hanover, Oldenburg, Prussia, Anhalt, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Hesse, Thuringian States, Saxony, Baden, Württemberg, Bavaria.

9. *The Balkans*

Draw Roumania, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, Albania, Greece, Turkey. Draw line showing Turkey before Balkan Wars, 1912-1913. Indicate Bulgaria's secession to Roumania.

10. *Europe in 1914*

Draw the political divisions of Europe in 1914.

11. *Europe of Today*

Draw political divisions, labeling same. Shade Austria. Label: the Saar Basin, Danzig, Memel.

AMERICAN HISTORY

1. *Principal Voyages of Discovery*

Voyages of Vasco da Gama, Columbus, Cabot, Vesputius, Magellan, Drake, and Cartier.

2. *Eastern North America after the Peace of Utrecht, 1713*

Show English, French, and Spanish territories. Shade territories disputed by England and France. Indicate region in dispute between England and Spain.

3. *Eastern North America in 1763*

Show British territories. Indicate Proclamation Line of 1763.

4. *United States in 1783*

Draw States. Include State claims to Western territories.

5. *United States in 1803*

Show States and Territories. Mark annexation of dispute with Spain and Great Britain. Label States and Territories.

6. *Territorial Expansion, 1845-1853*

Show States and Territories. Mark annexation of Texas, 1855; territory ceded by Mexico, 1848; Oregon as constituted by treaty of 1846; Gadsden Purchase, 1853. Shade in region in dispute between Texas and Mexico from 1848 and region in dispute between United States and Great Britain in Oregon from 1864. Indicate, by line, region ceded by Texas to United States in 1850.

7. *Status of Slavery in 1850*

Show slave and free states. Draw Missouri Compromise line. Indicate territory open to slavery by Missouri Compromise. Shade territory opened by the Compromise of 1850.

8. *United States at Opening of the War Between the States*

Show Confederate states and Union states.

9. *United States Today*

Label States, giving dates in which they entered the Union.

10. *United States as a World Power*

Show colonial possessions, with dates of acquisition.

An Orientation Course in Business

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It is generally recognized today that business facts are utilized by all American citizens whether they are in the professions, in factories, in offices, or in homes. For example, they are required to be familiar with certain established economic principles, with details governing spending and investing, and with recent trends in laws which influence their rights, liberties and property. It is increasingly essential, therefore, that high school students be taught the rudiments of business operation, and the interrelations which exist between companies and the personalities therein employed. Practical exemplifications of business are readily discoverable in the current press and students in their daily life are cognizant of the proprietorship, partnership and corporation as types of business organization as well as of mergers, wage systems, unemployment, chain store merchandising, methods of advertising, and changes in investment and banking practice. Problems of business management in recent years have become more complex and it is necessary that high school students be trained to attack these problems and solve them; in addition, they must be trained to save, invest, and spend their incomes.

It is literally impossible for a teacher to present to students everything they should know for a successful career in business but he can assume personal responsibility for providing them with a broad basic knowledge of business data which are commonly used by all individuals in life, irrespective of their position. This aim may be attained by a survey course of busi-

ness which should be given as early as feasible in the curriculum of business majors who can base their future work in the department upon this particular course. It should also be open to any student who wishes to elect it as a means of deciding whether he is desirous of pursuing business as a major subject in high school or college. Since the course's coverage will be selected for its universal applicability and general usefulness it will be chosen by high school students irrespective of their major departments.

Each business department should draft a syllabus of the information to be covered by this orientation course taking into consideration the business demands and opportunities in the community in which the high school is located. Such a course should be viewed as an introduction to other business courses offered by the department but it also should be planned so that it may supply the desired information to those students who will take no additional course in business. It should present the operation of the business unit from a survey rather than a comprehensive view, and it might well start from employment in an actual business situation and progress to those elements of business knowledge which are held to be essential by the faculty designing the course. While no perfect outline for such an orientation course could be prepared without information concerning the school and business community to which it would be applicable an idea of the coverage of the course is given as follows:

Part I—Application for Position

Kinds of business in community and requirements for employment therein; methods of obtaining contact with company in field of interest; written application; interview; application blanks and tests; employee's first week on the job; employers' comments and criticisms about employees; business ethics; psychology as it applies to business and to individuals therein engaged.

Part II—The Business Organization

Formation and promotion of businesses; types of organization; corporation stock and management; methods of borrowing; expansion of business; selling securities; working capital; income policies; inter-company relations; failure and rehabilitation of companies; business forecasting.

Part III—Accounting—Personal and Business

Necessity of accounting records for individuals and businesses; statements to be prepared and how utilized; business papers; difference in accounting for proprietorships, partnerships and corporations; use of public accountants; preparation of tax returns; personal and business budgets.

Part IV—Business Law

Sources of law; kinds of courts; connection between law and business and individual; common types of contracts; relationship between principal and agent; sales contracts and transfer of title; types of bailments; common carriers of goods and persons; negotiable instruments; partnerships; corporations; bankruptcy; definition and title of real property; common legal forms; employment of attorneys.

Part V (a)—Life Insurance

Types and reasons for its use; insurable interest; law of average; types of insurance companies; organization of field force; premiums; loan and surrender values; termination of contract; naming beneficiary and assignment of policies.

Part V (b)—Property Insurance

Reasons for and types of policies; over-insurance; protecting parties under it; extent of coverage; suspension and avoidance of policy; co-insurance clauses; rating of risks; settlement of losses; general principles covering automobile insurance; usefulness of title, credit and surety policies.

Part VI—Business Correspondence

Importance of good written and spoken English; mechanics of writing; set-up forms

of letters, choice of stationery and letterheads; sales letters; inquiries and orders; credit letters; collection and adjustment letters; business reports; general principles governing advertising copy.

Part VII—Secretarial Training

Opportunities in offices, differentiation between secretaries and stenographers; office routine including transcribing and typing letters; office mail; filing; ordering and care of supplies; reception of office callers; telephone supervision; telegrams and cables; business trips; care of money and banking accounts; office reports and records; aiding employers in business writing; minutes and reports of meetings; manuscripts and proof reading.

Part VIII—Marketing

Importance of market distribution; functions of marketing; marketing of various types of goods; direct sales; agents; auctions; exchanges; wholesalers and retailers; methods of distribution through chains, mail order and specialty stores; advertising; foreign trade.

Part IX—Salesmanship

What it covers; products and their sales; market analysis; knowledge necessary for salesman about product, market and competitors; personality in selling; judgment of prospect; desires of buyers; sales canvass; the interview; house to house sales; building a clientele.

Part X—Investments

Function of investment; speculation in investment; stocks and bonds; tests; railroad, public utility, industrial securities; securities of moneyed corporations; real estate and foreign securities; purchasing points; points in holding; small investors and their programs; purchasing and selling of investments; quotations and financial reading relative to securities; present trends in investments.

Part XI—Banking

Functions of money and kinds in the U.S.; nature and kinds of credit; origin and growth of banking; classes of banks and their functions; national banking system; organization and administration of departments of banks; kinds of deposits; loans and their security; savings institutions; trust companies; the Federal Reserve System; simple principles of foreign exchange; recent developments in banking and its supervision.

Part XII—Public Utilities

Nature, scope, significance, organization, reg-

ulation and service of the railroad, air transportation and other carriers; other public utilities and their regulation; the I.C.C.

Part XIII—Recent Legislation Affecting Business

Background of depressions and recessions;

principles of recovery program; relief and public works; effect upon government, industry, transportation, agriculture and finance of legislative measures; labor relations in recent years; summarization of laws of New Deal; possible future developments of business and regulation affecting it.

News and Comment

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WAR SIFTINGS

The war finds its way into nearly every current periodical. Writing in the December number of *Current History*, a group of distinguished commentators interpreted current affairs in the light of "The European War: 1939." General Hugh S. Johnson stated convincingly why, with adequate naval defenses, the United States need not fear invasion from any part of the globe. The probability of a real invasion from the air was heavily discounted because the air machines now in use or likely to be designed in the more immediate future are incapable of transporting large enough forces to do the work of conquest. For a long time to come, thanks to our geographical location, invasion would have to come over the sea and in the face of the American navy.

The distinguished French cleric and scholar, Abbé Ernest Dimnet, told what he had found to be the attitude of the ordinary Frenchman toward the present conflict. So many of the French remember the last war too vividly to be satisfied with a peace that shall be but another armistice. They fear a peace that would be only a truce between mobilizations, turning life into a nightmare. Without excitement, without enthusiasm, but firmly, they are resolved to prevent that. They say, "It cannot go on! That man [Hitler] has to be stopped."

Alfred Duff Cooper, former First Lord of the British Admiralty, in an interview, frankly traced this war to the Treaty of Versailles and its consequences. Communistic tendencies, he said, have been increasingly evident in Germany under Hitler's regime. A conservative reaction against Hitler is not unlikely, as a result, and it would terminate the war. This is a striking statement. But what would follow? Duff Cooper's opinion is interesting, in view of Clarence Streit's book, *Union Now*. "I don't think," said Cooper, "we can expect any lasting peace in Europe unless we work out some plan for a European union—perhaps even a United States of Europe. As a mat-

ter of fact, I think a European federation is one of the few certainties which we can say will come out of this war," whether the Allies or Germany wins.

Other commentators dealt with such varied subjects as the modern tank as a weapon of offense and defence, the current Indian situation, and Joachim von Ribbentrop. In the event of a German debacle, the blame will fall largely upon "Ribbi," whose advice Hitler has been following. Henry C. Wolfe, in his sketch of Hitler's Foreign Minister, called him an opportunist and self-seeker, and not a Bismarck, as some people have been suggesting. Von Ribbentrop did make some remarkable predictions, but he made a fatal error in 1939 when he assured Hitler that Great Britain would remain inactive if Poland was invaded. To make matters worse, his Russo-German Pact looks less and less like a grand coup and more and more like a boomerang.

Recalling the oft-repeated prophecy that another great war would result in the collapse of western civilization, the editors of *Common Sense* "asked a number of leading minds what they thought of the future." Five of the replies were printed in the December issue of the periodical. Lancelot Hogben expressed doubts about the future of Europe, unless Great Britain and France and other western democracies came together in a way now familiar as a result of Clarence Streit's *Union Now*. Theodore Dreiser was of the opinion that civilization would not pass, and he saw a new dawn in the East, in Russia. But, he said, civilization "will proceed in a new form." Upton Sinclair saw in the present a birth and not a death: a new collectivist society emerging from the womb of capitalism. To Stuart Chase the present conflict is a western European civil war and not an international conflict. Whoever wins, "both factions must continue to live in the same country together." Western Europe, from the standpoint of union, is simply where the United States was a century and a half ago. John Dewey held out the hope that at last faith in war is

weakening and that, thanks to the Russo-German alliance, democracy itself may be strengthened. He, too, hinted at federation.

Viscount Cranborne, member of Parliament, presented an English explanation of "Why Britain Fights" (*Foreign Affairs* for January). He stated once more the British aim of preserving the liberty and security of the nation and its citizens. Until the World War this aim was realized by the balance of power policy; after that war, the League of Nations was regarded as the instrument for assuring it. But the League, devised by democrats for use in a democratic world, failed when dictatorships sprang up. The way of democracy is the way of compromise. "A democratic statesman feels a national instinct to compromise, to try and find some middle line between the two points of view, to narrow the gulf until it becomes bridgeable." He avoids conflict. But a dictator abhors compromise which, to him, signifies feebleness and decadence. He seeks to win a conflict rather than the approval of his fellow men. He is above laws and treaties, and is essentially amoral.

No democratic country, said the Viscount, willingly embarks on a preventive war. "The idea is repellent to it. Its whole system is based on conciliation." But it will fight when its liberty and security are directly endangered. Hence appeasement was the policy, until totalitarian policy made it clear beyond all doubt that appeasement and security and liberty were irreconcilable. When, last fall, it was evident that Hitler aimed at the domination of Europe, Great Britain faced the probability of war and took steps accordingly. Russia, it was thought, really wanted peace and might therefore be counted on. But events showed how mistaken this estimate was.

In September, 1938, Great Britain had "no direct obligation to assist Czecho-Slovakia," although she did have a conditional obligation, along with other members, under the Covenant of the League of Nations. A year later, Great Britain had definitely pledged herself to Poland, and this obligation she kept.

The events of 1939 have strengthened Great Britain and France in the resolve to carry on until Europe "is freed from ever-recurring threats of aggression." No longer will they remain inactive when confronted by a fait accompli. Liberty and security are directly menaced, it is now clear, and the whole basis of thinking has therefore shifted. The issue is not to save the Polish government but to win in the struggle against totalitarianism. Poland's martyrdom is tragic, but the greater aim must be given precedence. Hence the war of attrition. The democratic powers are not risking the hazard of heroic attack, but are taking the surer path of military and economic strangulation which their superior position and condition afford them.

The war aims, he said, are (1) the restoration of the liberties of Poland and Czecho-Slovakia, (2) the establishment of a German government which will keep its promises, and (3) no desire to trample the German nation under foot or to exclude her from her rightful place as a great nation of Europe. But liberty and security must be assured to the nations of Europe.

In *The New Republic* for December 13 ("Federation for Europe"), the well-known publicist, H. N. Brailsford, stated that the British Labor Party has endorsed the idea of a European Federation. "The federal idea has captured everything that is alive and progressive in English opinion."

A thought-provoking symposium on "This War and America" was presented in the December number of *Frontiers of Democracy*. Various phases of the unhappy world scene were reviewed and interpreted in the December and January issues of *Events*.

TREND IN TEACHING

Nelson L. Bossing of the University of Minnesota brought together in *The High School Journal* for December a useful summary of "Some Major Trends Relating to the Curriculum and Their Implications for Teaching." These may be grouped as five changes in current ideas about education and five implications for the teaching-learning process.

First, the concept of education has changed gradually from the aristocratic-cultural, which came into America from Europe during colonial times, to the democratic-social concept. This change has given rise, secondly, to the functional concept of education and curriculum, which in turn, in the third place, has widened the curriculum concept until it includes all the experiences of the learner, in school and out. Attention is shifting from subject matter, or the instruments of instruction, to the consequences of learning which pupils exhibit. Although not new, the emphasis upon this idea is resulting, in the fourth place, either in the reorganization of traditional subject matter in ways often called fused or integrated subject matter or in an integrated curriculum that draws at will upon all subjects that supply the desired learning experiences. Clearly, if child experience is the criterion, inherited, rigid, subject-matter divisions are not suitable to meet satisfactorily the needs of child personality and psychology or to meet the demands of their life problems. By the same token, in the fifth place, the traditional grade and departmental classifications are out of line.

Several consequences for teaching follow. First, the functional approach casts doubt upon a curriculum handed down for all by an expert above. The curriculum must be flexible in order to meet the specific learning requirements of problems and conditions in actual social situations. Not memorization

and information in specified content areas are needed but increasing power to cope with problem situations of living, with more adequate understanding and more desirable social attitudes and appreciations. The results of learning cannot be measured by the traditional tests for factual information but call for measurement in terms of social functionality. Such testing methods are still in embryo.

In the second place, increased emphasis is being placed upon understanding the psychology of the learner and the learning process and of his nature and personality as an individual. Unfortunately, there are not generally accepted answers about the ways in which experience functions in the various aspects of the learning process, such as skills, information, understanding, and appreciation. Thirdly, a clear and definite answer is needed to the question, what is the nature of the learning process? But practice need not wait on theory. Men made good use of fire long before they discovered the theory of combustion. If teaching is geared into the "political-socio-economic environment in which the learner is to function," it may be counted upon to be functional.

Such teaching, in the fourth place, is an art. In every locality, varying social situations and pupil differences will require in a teacher the creative imagination and skill of an artist. For child success, cut-and-dried methods will not suffice. The imaginative genius of the teacher, like that of an orchestra leader, will determine the height of success in performance. Finally, teaching becomes a daily adventure, because in the state of our social science it must continue for some time to be experimental and pioneering, with its goals not surely defined.

Professor Bossing voiced a challenge to teachers which is being heard in many quarters, a challenge that will outlast this generation.

IS INTELLIGENCE MODIFIABLE?

Experiments and studies revealing an apparently positive gain or loss in intelligence, especially in very young children, according to the kind of living conditions surrounding them, have been evoking great interest. The question was made the subject of the November issue of *Educational Method*, under the title, "Intelligence in a Changing Universe." Professor Paul Witty, editor of the issue, introduced the discussion by reviewing much of the recent evidence showing that intelligence is a function of environment no less than of inheritance ("Toward a Reconstruction of the Concept of Intelligence").

Professor Witty concluded that "It does seem well established that I.Q.'s are alterable to a degree previously unsuspected, and that rich and wholesome surroundings produce significantly large and seemingly lasting gains in I.Q. . . . Hereditary predisposition is not, in the case of intelligence, the limiting

spectre it has so universally been assumed to be." But he pointed out, efforts to increase intelligence will be handicapped unless they are concerned no less with "the feelings, attitudes, and emotions of children and all persons who are associated with them during their formative years." What happens, then, to the doctrine of natural class superiorities, if intelligence is socially achieved rather than inherited?

Florence L. Goodenough of the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of Minnesota warned that the results of the experiments and studies to which Professor Witty referred be accepted with caution. In "Look To the Evidence!" she gave reasons why it is too soon to accept the conclusions suggested. Minnesota's Commissioner of Education, John G. Rockwell, likewise counseled caution and good sense, in his lengthy examination of "Intelligence Testing: Its Basic Assumptions and Unanswered Questions." Among the other articles attention should be drawn at least to Professor J. J. DeBoer's "Intelligence and Democratic Living," Professor G. E. Axtelle's "Significance of the Inquiry into the Nature and Constancy of the I.Q.," and M. J. Cohler's "Some Educational Implications of the 'Changing I.Q.'"

TWELFTH GRADE COURSE

In the *Teachers College Record* for December, three teachers of the Horace Mann School related their experience with a twelfth grade course on American problems and issues (Harden, Armstrong, and Wood, "A Senior Social Studies Program: America's Problems and Issues"). The twelfth year work was looked upon as the culmination of the junior-senior high school program in the social studies, courses in the earlier years being directed in part toward the needs of the final year. Moreover, the work in other departments was coordinated with that in social studies.

The bulk of the article was devoted to descriptions of the ways in which the class and individual members worked on various units, such as propaganda, consumer economics, housing, coöperatives, labor, taxation, conservation, and the youth problem. No textbook was followed. The subjects of study did not make a permanent course of study, and the order of units depended upon what was important current news, upon class choice, and upon teacher guidance. Teachers in other departments coöperated with their colleagues in the social studies department, and pupils freely used mathematics and other subjects when they were necessary.

This summary of procedures will be found helpful and suggestive, whatever may be the course of study commonly called Problems of Democracy.

LOCUS OF PUBLIC SERVICE CONTROL

In the same issue of the *Teachers College Record*

a series of articles was begun on "Central versus Local Control of Public Services." Professor Paul Studenski, in the first article, collected the arguments in support of the "Merits of Well-Conceived Local Control," grouping them under the eight heads of local unity, close adaptation of services to needs, promotion of democracy, beneficial inter-community competition, desirable experimentation in government, political stability, national unity and security, and relief of congestion in national government activities. The arguments were based on the interpretation of historical and current experiences in government.

Later articles will deal similarly with the shortcomings of extreme decentralization, the advantages of well-conceived central control, and the shortcomings of extreme centralization. Professor Paul R. Mort, long a student of the question, enlisted the aid of Dr. Studenski. The series, said Professor Mort in his introduction to the first article, should "clarify the atmosphere with respect to important issues and . . . lay the groundwork for significant researches in the appraisal of the various arguments." In collecting arguments, pro and con, search was made in both American and European literature.

WASHINGTON, D.C.

Merlo J. Pusey, Washington newspaper man with a special interest in the government of the District of Columbia, contributed to the December number of *Forum* an appraisal of the city of Washington. Calling his article, "Washington: a National Disgrace," Mr. Pusey traced various disgraceful conditions to the city's Topsy-like administration and to Congress's inescapable preoccupation with Washington as a nation's capital, neglecting its use as a home for more than 600,000 people.

In health, housing, crime, unemployment, and destitution the record of Washington is bad. An attorney-general of the United States recently called the city a "crime center" and a "national disgrace." For improvement, the citizens must wait upon a Congress whose attention is directed elsewhere and whose members are foreign to the city. In fact, said Mr. Pusey, although there are many governmental agencies functioning in the District of Columbia, actually there is no government, no specific location of final responsibility, other than in Congress. Even to name a street requires an act of Congress.

The fault, Mr. Pusey pointed out, lies not entirely with Congress. An experiment in self-government, two generations ago, ended disastrously, and various local interests strongly oppose change. High school pupils will enjoy reading this article.

TIDES IN POLITICAL OPINION

"Tides of American Politics" was an illuminating

account, by Arthur M. Schlesinger, of the swings and counterswings of American political opinion since colonial times (*The Yale Review* for December). While respectable with age, said Professor Schlesinger, our two major parties have not "been cohesive bodies of voters espousing coherent programs." Even their leaders have taken a walk at times, as Mr. Smith did in 1936. Apparently energies greater than those in a party have moved the nation. One such force has been the opposing conservative and liberal temperaments. From the few to the many, from property welfare to human, from status quo to marked change, the oscillations of our history have swung. Between 1765 and 1931, Professor Schlesinger dated ten distinct periods of alternating Leftist and Rightist swings and named the features that earmarked the dominant national mood of each period, as expressed by government activity. The disaffected, during each period, by their words and deeds, do much to bring in the next period.

After analyzing the time rhythm of these periods, Dr. Schlesinger indicated that, unless war or other catastrophe intervenes, the liberal swing which began in 1931 would exhaust itself about 1947 and a conservative reaction would then be dominant until about 1963. Whichever party wins in 1940, therefore, it will be governed by the liberal mood, as was President Taft's administration. Liberal gains, written upon the statute books, are generally accepted by the conservatives as part of the new status quo, making conservatism less conservative and liberalism more liberal. The period swings, therefore, resemble a spiral rather than a pendulum.

What causes these oscillations? Some say hard times bring a leftward swing. Yet, during the extraordinarily long conservative era from 1869 to 1901, the nation experienced two great depressions, while the present liberal era came in with a depression. Study of sun spots reveals no convincing connections; wars have occurred at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of periods. But every liberal era in government was inaugurated by a dominant personality in the White House.

Territorial expansion did not affect length of periods, nor did invention or mass education. It is likely that the new devices for affecting public opinion will not greatly affect the direction of national policy. When pressure groups propagandize in harmony with the national bent of the time, they may effect more extreme measures. But, in view of the pressures exerted on the public by groups pro and con, the net result is not likely greatly to alter the general drift of opinion.

It is interesting to note, although little study has been made of it, that liberal and conservative trends within states seem not to be geared up with national trends. The state trend, as often as not, has been

contrary to the national. Nor is there a parallelism between the United States and her sister democracies of Great Britain and France, either in length of periods or time of occurrence. Dr. Schlesinger can find no explanation, other than the pragmatic one. "Apparently the electorate embarks on conservative policies until it is disillusioned or wearied or bored, and then attaches itself to liberal policies until a similar course is run." Both liberals and conservatives thus make their contributions. Each is sure of its day in power. This is the safety valve of peaceful evolution. "Not conservatism nor liberalism, but a fair field for both, is the American ideal. Herein lies the principal argument for the jealous preservation of the constitutional rights of free speech, free assemblage, and freedom of the press."

FOR TEACHER AND PUPIL

Older high school youth will read with much interest and considerable profit, especially if they discuss them, two challenging speeches. Both were deft, lightened by humor, and thought provoking. Stanley High, speaking before the New York *Herald Tribune* Forum on "Termites in America," drew attention to groups which, boring from within, endanger our democratic fabric. He suggested ways for destroying such social termites, without sacrificing democratic principles (*Vital Speeches of the Day* for December 1, 1939).

The other address was made by Will Durant before the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York (*Vital Speeches of the Day*, December 15, 1939). Examining "The Crisis in American Civilization," Mr. Durant enumerated five foundations of civilization whose strength must be preserved if they are to continue to give adequate support. He

indicated what he believed to be the attacking forces and how they could be combatted.

In the December issue of *Forum*, some pros and cons were given on the question, "Should Government Own Our Utilities?" Although confined mainly to electrical power utilities, the debate will be useful in classes studying the question of public ownership.

"Should Canada Join Pan-America?" This question was discussed in the Winter, 1939-40, issue of the *North American Review* by H. D. Crawford, who enumerated the probable advantages both to Canada and to the Americas.

"The Story of Coffee," as told in the December number of *Natural History* by Dean Freiday and illustrated by Hendrik Van Loon, is an interesting bit of history never given in the secondary school textbooks.

The Nation's Schools for December carried a special sixteen-page illustrated section entitled "Portfolio on Radio in Education." Federal Commissioner Stuebaker, former Pennsylvania Superintendent of Public Instruction Ade, and others discussed the uses, the practices, and the possibilities of radio in teaching.

Readable pamphlets, suitable for high schools, describing our natural resources and human resources have been prepared by the National Resources Committee. They may be secured, at ten cents each, from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. Such titles are available as: *Technology and Planning*, *The States and Planning*, *Regional Planning*, *Planning Our Resources*, *Water Planning*, *Our Energy Resources*, *The Northern Lakes States Region*, *Population Problems*, *Our Cities*, and *Federal Relations to Research*.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania

Social Education. Stanford Education Conference. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. vii, 312. \$1.75.

This is a collection of fourteen papers presented at the Stanford Education Conference, called in 1938, in recognition of the importance of social education. Like numerous volumes issuing in the past few years, it witnesses to a somewhat belated discovery of society on the part of professional folk who for the past generation and more have been preoccupied largely with the individual. As a corrective of that

unbalance, the new emphasis is of some utility. Various aspects of social education are discussed: the general problem; culture and education; basic elements in American democracy; dynamics of social change; science and technics in American culture; use (and waste) of natural resources; welfare levels; group structure and social education; art; personality; educational principles; American tradition; a program of social education and its evaluation.

As might be expected, there is considerable unevenness in such a collection of papers; but as a whole

they can be read with profit by the audience for which they are intended. Certain themes are worthy of special note. Kreps' "Welfare Levels in American Life" is a straightforward and concise statement of basic economic facts and their bearing on education, with which all American teachers, not only those of social science, should be familiar. Hand's "Group Structure and Some of Its Implications for Social Education" is a forthright attack on the mythical character of our boasted neutrality and impartiality towards all "interest" and "pressure" groups, and a plea for the bias of democracy, to the end that education may further the interests of democracy. Ogburn's suggestive chapter on the important question of "Dynamics and Control of Social Change" ends on a melancholy note. To control changes one must be able to forecast what effects will derive from a particular invention. This at present, we are not able to do; the author knows of but "two courses in any institution of higher learning on the social effects of invention," and "There is almost no publication of books on the subject, and . . . few articles" (p. 71). Social scientists should look into this matter.

The chapters are brief and furnish little more than an introduction to some of the crucial problems of social education, but they are followed by bibliographies which will be of value to teachers who desire a more thorough acquaintance with those aspects of social education here represented.

A word on omissions: one finds here no satisfactory account of the causes of failure of social education. The preponderant stress, at the sources of teacher-supply, on techniques of teaching and other "practical" aspects of training, determined in the light of job-analysis, and a correspondingly slight concern with philosophy and other value-searching disciplines, may have been responsible in no small degree for the narrowness and shallowness of social outlook in schools. If this be true, to improve social education it is necessary to rid the source of teacher supply of its narrow functionalism.

THOMAS WOODY

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Heritage of America: Readings in American History. Edited by Henry Steele Commager and Allan Nevins. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1939. Pp. xxiv, 1152. Illustrated. \$2.40.

"History is not a matter of libraries, but of life; the best of it is not stiffly secondhand, but is matter pulsing with the hopes and despairs, the ardors and endurances, the joys and sorrows of plain people everywhere." This idea, the editors write, determined the selection of the readings in the collection.

There are narratives of a weary voyage of German

Redemptioners, the homely common sense of Davy Crockett, the moanings of scalded victims of a steamboat race, the suffering of half-frozen children of the Donner party, the steady toil of an Iowa farm boy, and the experiments of a sympathetic judge of a juvenile court. There are stories of the days of sailing and whaling, of the western mining kingdom and the cattle country, and of the rise of modern captains of industry. In the field of politics are found such topics as "How John Quincy Adams Was Made President"; "A Railroad Lobby Licks Governor LaFollette"; "W. J. Bryan Campaigns in the Rain"; and "Franklin D. Roosevelt Promises a New Deal." Included, also, are extracts from the *Declaration of Independence*, the *Articles of Confederation*, Lincoln's last *Inaugural Address*, and other state papers.

The book is divided into thirty-five chapters, each representing a particular era of American life. Excerpts from 252 narratives have been grouped in these chapters to give a conception of each era. The editors have written a brief introduction for each extract. At the end of the volume, a full bibliography is given for those who may wish to obtain the text of any selection in its original form.

The scholarly eminence of the editors guarantees a discriminative selection of material from the great mass of sources. Because of the interest of the editors in the role of the plain people in the American scene, the extracts are readable, they abound in human interest, and they should appeal to the high school student and the general reader.

J. IRA KREIDER

Abington Senior High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

A Short History of the American Negro. By Benjamin Brawley. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Fourth Revised Edition. Pp. xv, 288. \$2.00.

This book appeared in its first form in 1913. It has been widely read as shown by the fact that here we have its fourth revised edition. The study endeavors simply to set forth the main facts that one might wish to know about the subject, and to supply the background for much that is read today in newspapers and magazines. The history of the Negro people in the United States is described in four well-defined periods—the colonial era, extending from 1619, when the first Negroes came to Jamestown, to 1776, the date which formally signaled the opening of the Revolutionary War; the second period, extending from this war to the Civil War; the third period, beginning with the Civil War and ending with the opening of the World War; and the fourth period, when the Negro people came face to face with new and vast problems of economic adjustment at the opening of the World War.

From the nature of the discussion, the treatment could hardly be primarily original, and frequent citations are made to the conclusions of investigators along special lines. But the result is really very good. We are particularly enthusiastic about the last two chapters which outline the contributions made by the colored man to our civilization. In this respect, all the teachers interested in promoting the educational aspects of "cultural pluralism" will find here enough worth while and concise material to make their students very conscious of the value of our Negro to the growth of our culture.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

Hofstra College
Hempstead, New York

The Mennonites in Iowa. By Melvin Gingerich. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1939. Pp. 419. \$3.00.

This book adds another romantic chapter to the story of the Westward Movement in America. The Mennonites and Amish who had their origin in Alsace, South Germany and Switzerland came as immigrant settlers to Iowa about 1839. Opposition to compulsory military training following the Napoleonic Wars, and the European revolutions were the chief causes for their emigration.

The author is intimately acquainted with the various Amish and Mennonite groups. The entire work is a clear illustration of the fact that a "number of divisions of Mennonites in America today are due not to schisms, but are due to different immigrations at different times from various European backgrounds."

The author gives a very fair evaluation of the economic and cultural contributions of these groups to American life: their expert knowledge and practice of farming and stock-raising, their community spirit as shown by their coöperative enterprises, their personal standards of honesty, thrift and industry, their wholesome family life, and finally that which is most characteristic—a philosophy of life, distinctly religious.

The book, written in a clear and readable style, has valuable notes and citations, and a very useful index. Maps and photographs would have added to the value of the book.

QUINTUS LEATHERMAN

Souderton, Pennsylvania

City Planning, Why And How. By Harold MacLean Lewis. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. ix, 257. \$2.50.

Mr. Lewis has produced something more than a primer of urban planning and something less than a technical treatise for the professional planner. His book which is exceptionally well grounded in practi-

cal illustrations is a powerful argument addressed to citizens. He would distinguish true planning from any of the new forms of "regimentation." Urban planning is urban living directed by knowledge. After the needs have been demonstrated by careful surveys, and after possibilities have been explored, citizens cannot remain entirely neutral. Knowledge has its own compulsions.

Mr. Lewis is at pains to point out that city planning is not, and probably never will be, a single profession. Planning experts have come from many fields—from engineering, architecture, economics, sanitation, and sociology. Good planning requires co-operation, but it is obviously a weakness in planning to keep insisting that planning experts should be only advisory.

In 1936 more than one thousand municipal planning boards and five hundred metropolitan planning agencies existed in the United States. They embodied wide citizen representation. Mr. Lewis has included a large number of maps, diagrams, and charts for the citizen, demonstrating both the growth and value of planning. In this development, schoolmen have become more conscious of the need of urban educational planning with reference to population. They have been less eager to make the schools themselves an informal planning agency.

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College,
Kansas City, Missouri

Social Control. By L. L. Bernard. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 711. \$4.00.

According to its author, the chief virtues of *Social Control* are the sociological point of view, the fact that it is a case book as well as a textbook, and the inductive method evident in its writing. Professor Bernard also mentions his attempt to avoid abstract discussions, but no past reader of his notable books should be misled by that statement into believing that here at last is something pleasant and readable.

The claim to a sociological approach means—after an arid section on how this special field shall be made into a social science—that the body of the book is concerned with the means and forms of social control.

The illustrative cases which make the text doubly useful range from the ancient Greeks to the sit-down strike and are so numerous as to challenge comparison with the marshalling of evidence by Sumner or Pareto. Some will wish that Bernard had been more critical of his sources; there is too much uncritical acceptance of any story that appeared in the author's home-town newspaper. It is a pity *Social Control* could not have come out a few months later: Herr Hitler, mentioned only seven times in these hundreds of pages, has given us new illustrations of his tech-

nique of social control. These recent illustrations might have made Bernard less sanguine about the "headway that is being made by the new ethical criteria of social justice and social welfare."

Professor Bernard may have assembled his illustrations with all the lack of prejudice he claims, but no one can discuss such controversial issues as fill the pages of this volume and satisfy all his readers. The very division into "exploitive" (and why must he choose a word not in the dictionary?) and constructive social controls perhaps betrays a fundamental bias, and affords a pseudo-scientific outlet to that latent Utopianism which it is a favorite indoor sport to find lurking somewhere in most sociologists. However, where there is so much insight and realism it seems ungrateful to criticize the author for a fault that is almost universal.

W. REX CRAWFORD

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Inside the Department of State. By Bertram D. Hulén. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. xiii, 328. \$3.00.

This timely book was long overdue, because the last work on the subject, Gaillard Hunt's *The Department of State*, was published more than a generation ago. Since then, the United States has consolidated its position as a world power and to meet the needs of the new situation the Department of State (including the foreign service) has been reorganized and greatly expanded. In these pages its present organization and functioning are described with a wealth of well-digested detail by a veteran Washington correspondent of the Associated Press and the *New York Times*. While Mr. Hulén focuses his attention on the present, he makes frequent excursions into the past. The material is topically arranged under such chapter headings as "The General Staff," "The Eyes and Ears Abroad," "Influences in the Shaping of Policy," and "The Press Conference System."

In many respects Mr. Hulén has done a fine job. The limitations of his book are mainly due to the hazards of journalistic writing. For one thing, it is evident that he did not have time enough to get up his historical background. For another, he does not fulfill the promise of his title to give "inside" information. This is hardly a work of mirrors and dusters, and still less of keyholes and backstairs. For instance, it does not even mention Raymond Moley and William E. Dodd, who were involved in well-known incidents that illuminate the recent conduct of our foreign relations but are highly controversial. Perhaps the explanation lies in the fact that Mr. Hulén still holds his newspaper assignment to the Department of State.

It is rather surprising—especially since he is a journalist—that he failed to discuss the Gallup poll in his chapter on "Influences in the Shaping of Policy"; but if his anecdotes and reports of conversations with the pundits of our diplomatic service lack sparkle, no one will be surprised or disposed to blame him after learning that "the *Congressional Record* is read as closely in the Department as the newspapers" (p. 121). Still, it is interesting to read that present departmental opinion regards Benjamin Franklin as the ablest diplomat in our history, and is inclined to give the palm to Richard Olney (remember him?) as the best Secretary of the State since the Civil War. (The list of his rivals for the honor includes W. H. Seward, Hamilton Fish, John Hay, Elihu Root, and Charles Evans Hughes.)

This book raises many important questions, such as those relating to career diplomacy and the control of foreign relations, which can not be discussed here; but it is worth noting that this veteran observer's formula for producing a successful ambassador includes the requirement that the ambassador "should know in advance what are to be the administration's foreign and domestic policies" (p. 97). Are we growing cynical, or is that a counsel of despair?

ARTHUR P. WHITAKER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Organized Labor in Four Continents. By H. A. Marquand and Others, London: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Pp. 518. \$4.00.

This ambitious work, a pioneer in the field, surveys the events and trends of organized labor since 1919 in thirteen countries. Editor H. A. Marquand, of Cardiff College, has assembled within the covers of one volume eleven papers by such authorities in the field of labor relations as Andre Philip on France, Marquand himself on Great Britain, Selig Perlman on the United States, Leo Warshaw on Canada, and Iwao F. Ayusawa on Japan.

There is no attempt by the collaborators to formulate a world-wide or even a continental pattern for the history of organized labor during the past twenty years. The influence of international forces such as the International Labor Organization, the International Federation of Trade Unions, or the Red Trade Union International is discussed solely from national viewpoints, with emphasis varying according to the relationship of each with the respective countries. The sagacity of the editor in avoiding what he calls "impossible synthesis" is to be commended; but this reviewer, for one, would have welcomed a discussion of the close relationship which has existed between the labor movements of Mexico and the United States.

Each paper has been developed in a manner best suited to bring out the salient developments of the period. Each has prefaced his remarks with a brief historical discussion of the social and economic background in their respective countries previous to the first World War. Then, the circumstances of the post-war period force each to take cognizance of political developments. Thus, Professor Roll writes of the German labor movement under the Weimar Republic in a section distinct from one recounting the extinction of the movement under the Hitler regime. For the United States Professor Perlman begins with William Z. Foster and "Post-War Militancy," proceeds to the "Welfare Capitalism" of the booming twenties and early thirties, and then analyzes the complex situation created by developments of the past few years under the heading, "Labor and the New Deal." In exercising such freedom of approach, however, none of the authors have permitted political developments to lead them too far astray from the fundamental story they set out to tell, e.g., that of the development of the institutions of organized labor and the success of these institutions in raising the standard of living for the workers, eliminating costly industrial disputes, and securing necessary social legislation.

The papers are uniformly adequate, and usually objective. There will be abundant suggestions regarding that which should have been done and should not have been done. Why was New Zealand with its advanced program of social legislation omitted? Was there no South American country worthy of study? But, setting such matters of opinion aside, the book fulfills admirably the purpose for which it was offered—a book to which teachers can refer their students for "reasonably brief accounts of developments in other countries."

EDGAR B. CALE

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Study of Society: Methods and Problems. Edited by F. C. Bartlett, M. Ginsberg, and Others. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xii, 498. \$350.

No textbook this, despite the title! This is a serious survey and estimate of the present state of knowledge in the three major disciplines concerned with the life of man in society; social psychology, social anthropology, and sociology. After the best manner of Murphy and Murphy and their colleagues search scattered over the past decades are here summed in psychology, the multitudinous fragments of remarized, criticized, and synthesized. There are nineteen chapters and twenty-three collaborators, all British (which is no disparagement). Each chapter is followed by a bibliography containing the principle

monographs surveyed, sometimes running over a hundred; supplementary references are provided for the zealous reader of footnotes, and neat parcels of "recommended general readings" for the layman appear fairly regularly at the end of each bibliography.

There is no need to stress the enormous importance of a handy volume of this sort. For the breadth of topics covered, that is to say *really* covered, not just mentioned, it has in the literature of the social sciences no equal. The first five chapters treat social psychopathology and child psychology; then come six chapters on statistical techniques, intelligence tests, attitude tests, and rating scales, methods of assessing personality, and vocational advising; the three chapters on social-anthropological methods include special discussions of interviewing, intelligence-testing, and folklore analysis; finally, five contributors present certain aspects of sociological research, especially case-studies, team work and "functional penetration," and studies in industrial psychology. In a generally excellent book the last section appears to be the weakest, but, be it remarked, the present reviewer is a sociologist.

E. Y. HARTSHORNE

Harvard University
Cambridge, Massachusetts

Education For Work. A Publication of The Regents Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. By Thomas L. Norton. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Pp. 263. \$2.75.

Revamping of high school courses of study to prepare boys and girls for life rather than for colleges, is urged by Dr. Norton as a result of his study made for the Regents Inquiry. Dr. Norton believes that opportunities for vocational training should be provided for three groups of pupils, differentiated on the basis of grade accomplishment—level 1, including pupils through grade 9; level 2, taking in pupils from grades 10 through 12 whose full time schooling will presumably close with the high school; and level 3, including persons who have successfully completed the high school course and those who have demonstrated their vocational competence under adult working conditions.

Every community, he declared, should study its work offerings, its apprenticeship jobs, its training possibilities in stores, farms, and factories, and then, in collaboration with school activities, make all the requirements of these known to the students who will soon be seeking jobs.

The study points to the fact that in 1936 there were 4,700,000 young persons in the United States, between the ages of 16 and 25, who were unemployed.

Dr. Norton states, "In order to aid the pupils in

making a wise selection, the school, in addition to offering introductory survey courses, should establish under competent supervision a testing program which will reveal the native and acquired characteristics of the pupil. The schools should use a scientific basis of selection rather than merely rely on the pupil's desire, which by itself is an inadequate guide." . . . "Admission to specific vocational courses should be restricted to those pupils who have shown an aptitude and interest in the training which such courses provide during the introductory survey courses, but the total program should make provisions for all who intend to terminate full time schooling with the secondary school." He advocates such training until each pupil is "initially adjusted" or until he is nineteen years old.

This report is a concise review of secondary institutions and curricula in need of revision to meet current trends. The scholarship is commendable and presents concrete suggestions for ameliorating existing evils. This report should be read and studied by progressive teachers and administrators throughout the country.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

The Earth and the State. A Study of Political Geography. By Derwent Whittlesey. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1939. Pp. xvii, 618. Maps. \$3.75.

Political geography is "old stuff" and those who wish to follow the evolution of the subject may turn to Richard Hartshorne's survey in the *American Political Science Review*, volume XXIX (1935), pages 785-804, 943-966. Germans have almost made political geography their peculiar national hobby, and the term "geopolitics," often used to cover the earth-based claims of the German nation, has frightened many non-chauvinists. This useful volume, not too technical, is well-balanced and less impassioned than most studies on a subject whose boundaries are not yet circumscribed. The author believes it must be conceded that "the political significance of any area bears a well-defined relation to its climate, landforms, and natural resources." He stresses the value of field studies and constantly argues that geopolitical forces are little understood. He complains that some students have attached the name "political geography" to discussions of the economic or regional geography of political areas. One may not always see the connection between the earth and the state, but Whittlesey's work should introduce many to new thoughts.

R.H.

Greek Athletics and Festivals in the Fifth Century. By Hester Harrington Stow. Boston: Museum

Extension Publications, Museum of Fine Arts, 1939. Illustrative Set No. 2, 40 Plates. \$5.00.

This is a portfolio, attractively presented, containing a series of large reproductions of Greek art in the Classical period, and a 32 page text on the history and significance of athletic festivals. The Museum of Fine Arts plans a hundred illustrative sets, to be published in uniform size and prepared by a specialist in each field of knowledge. The project is designed to supply good illustrative material for teachers in secondary schools or colleges, and will cover most aspects of cultural history, from prehistoric man of the Stone Age to World Unity.

Both artistically and historically, these plates are excellent, depicting the five events of the Pentathlon, by vase paintings, bas-relief, and sculpture in the round. There is even a vase painting of an ancient shower bath.

The unity of Greek culture which admits art and athletics in one portfolio makes these plates a working basis for a wide range of subjects: to art, history, literature, languages, and dramatics. Like Hercules holding the world on his shoulder, Greek culture presents the principles of a strong mind in a strong body, culminating in a great art.

B.C.H.

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

The Growth of European Civilization. By A. E. R. Boak, A. Hyma, and P. Slosson. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1938. Pp. 488, 570. Two volumes in one. \$4.50.

This book represents the united attempt of three well-known and seasoned historians, one an authority in ancient history and editor of the Roman bibliography in the *Guide to Historical Literature*, one a leading medievalist, and the third a specialist in phases of modern history, to cover in a volume of 1058 pages the essential facts and principles of European history. It is mainly well written, although the best writing appears in the latter half. The illustrations are well selected, the maps and convenient lists and charts are excellent. Its quotations, aptly chosen from source material, lifts the curtain just enough to arouse the average student's desire to see more of such vital history.

The text is uneven in value, but less so, perhaps, than most of its competitors. There are spots where the authors "see through a glass darkly" and lose their way among facts. However, in such an enormous undertaking, where historians attempt to coördinate the findings of physics, chemistry, astronomy, medicine, philosophy, social, political and economic history into a perfect picture of the development of civilization, it is no small wonder that they occasionally flounder. Only the Divine perspective would see

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widely enough to write what so many historians have attempted—the definitive history of European civilization.

A number of generalizations may be criticized. That "Mohammedans regard the Koran with greater reverence than most Christians pay to the Bible" (p. 187), and that medieval peasants' "attachment to their faith was lukewarm" (p. 258), are random examples of generalizations almost beyond the realm of historical proof. Incidentally, the town of Assisi is not "in a beautiful valley." (p. 264)

In spite of these criticisms, this work holds a place among the best of the books on European civilization. It seems adapted for high schools as well as colleges, and the classroom is proving its ability to pass the supreme test—to awaken student curiosity.

OSCAR G. DARLINGTON

Hofstra College
Hempstead, New York

England. By Cyril E. Robinson. Revised edition. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1939. Pp. x, 663. Illustrated. \$4.50.

The author's aim in this revised edition of a standard school book is threefold: to arouse interest, provide material for "some real understanding of historic issues," and print upon the memory some few and simple major facts. The achievement of the first object depends partly on the excellent illustrations, partly on discursive recital of the legends and anecdotes of English history, and, presumably, on the many readings suggested in an oddly selected bibliography from appropriate novels. The understanding derived may be somewhat colored true blue Tory: Simon de Montfort fought for "England for the English," Marlborough's talents were "needed" by European nations, India also needs English protection, and so forth. There is, I think no actual distortion of fact, but the interpretation offered is distinctly chauvinist. As an aid to memorizing facts some seventy-eight pages of summaries are provided.

CAROLINE ROBBINS

Bryn Mawr College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

Modern Europe. By Harrison C. Thomas and William Hamm. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1939. Pp. 854. Illustrated. \$2.24.

This is a revised edition of the authors' 1934 text and is designed to record changes which have taken place since then. One of the values of this book lies in the fact that it has been written by classroom teachers. It has usable reading lists and tables, apt illustrations, and good maps. The seven sections of the book deal with the topics: The Old Regime and its Background, Revolution and Reaction, Economic and Social Factors in Modern History, Nationalism, The

Growth of Democracy, Imperialism, and International Relations. The first two sections of this text furnish background material for a one year course in modern history. The chapters dealing with social factors are very valuable. The book as a whole is excellent and will make a practical and useful text which students will enjoy.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School, Pennsylvania

International Relations. By Bertram W. Maxwell. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1939. Pp. 663. \$3.75.

In his preface to this textbook, Mr. Maxwell states that he wishes "to record the most important developments in international affairs since the World War." Several lines further on he says that he wants "to give a fair analysis of contemporary world affairs." The book has been organized in four parts as follows: diplomacy and world order; contemporary world problems, such as nationalism, imperialism, and so forth; an historic account of world affairs since Versailles; and, finally, an account of the foreign policies of the important states. Mr. Maxwell has certainly succeeded in his first objective. Every historic event of any significance in the post-war world is to be found between the covers of this book. In this compilation of dates and facts Mr. Maxwell is at his best. But when he attempts to reach his second objective, "an analysis of contemporary world affairs," the results are not so satisfactory. One gets the impression that he cannot see the forest for the trees. There are three important deficiencies on this score. There is no apparent correlation in his analysis. He treats nationalism, imperialism, and rearmament as distinct problems to be handled individually and makes no effort to relate these problems to each other. When he discusses one of these problems he has relied almost exclusively on studies made by others. There is very little that can be claimed as the author's own thinking. Finally, his analysis is merely a description of the phenomena and not an explanation at all. As a compilation this textbook has real merit, as an analysis of international relations it leaves much to be desired.

JAMES A. PERKINS

Princeton, New Jersey

Foundations of Western Civilization. (Part I of *History of Western Civilization*). By William J. Bossenbrook and Rolf Johannesen. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1939. Pp. xxi, 695. Illustrated. \$3.75.

Wayne University, Detroit, is justly regarded as one of the best of the teaching institutions of Michigan and this book, which grew out of a coöperative teaching venture there, amply supports its reputation.

To relate briefly, in both a profitable and interesting way, the development of Western Civilization from the Stone Age to the reign of Louis XIV would seem to be impossible of achievement; yet the authors of this book have done just this and their work will prove useful and stimulating to teachers of survey courses everywhere. It would, for example, be hard to find a better brief account of the decline of the Roman and the rise of the medieval society than that given in sections four and five—indeed these sections are probably the best example of the authors' methods as those on the early modern period are possibly the least successful. A well written and learned text is supplemented by twenty-seven groups of illustrations of the civilizations described therein. An excellent select bibliography is provided, though this reviewer would have preferred a different choice of political histories in its last parts.

The authors have obviously read Mr. Toynbee's *Study* and have developed their survey along very carefully thought-out lines. They maintain that their "concept of society as dynamic, moving, creating, struggling, even decaying, but ever changing, is basic to the understanding of any civilization or history of any age," and their work undoubtedly owes a great deal of its unity to the clarity and definition of their vision. Some may disagree with their philosophy but there can surely be few who would not admit the success of its presentation here.

CAROLINE ROBBINS

Bryn Mawr College

Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Films on War and American Neutrality, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. Pp. iii, 44. 25 cents.

An annotated bibliography of twelve selected 16-mm. sound motion pictures dealing with the present war situation to promote a thorough understanding of the war. It gives general suggestions for the use of the films.

Our Virgin Island. By A. Thurston Child. St. Thomas, Virgin Islands: Department of Education, 1939. Pp. vii, 144. Illustrated.

A story for junior high school grades.

Why Europe Went to War. By Vera Micheles Dean. New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1939. 25 cents.

One of the World Affairs Pamphlets.

Organized Scarcity and Public Policy. By Harry D. Gideonse. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1939. 25 cents.

No. 30 in the series of Public Policy Pamphlets.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Greek Athletics and Festivals in the Fifth Century. By Hester Harrington Stow. Boston: Museum Extension Publications, Museum of Fine Arts, 1939. \$5.00.

Portfolio of forty collotype plates, explanatory captions, and thirty-two pages of text.

Principles of Unit Construction. By Arthur J. Jones, E. D. Grizzell, and Wren J. Grinstead. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939. Pp. x, 232. \$2.00.

A critical discussion of the objectives and principles of unit construction with illustrative materials.

The Constitutional History of the United States, 1826-1876. By Homer C. Hackett. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Vol. II. Pp. xii, 405. \$3.00.

Much space is given to the slavery controversy. The subtitle is "A More Perfect Union."

The Modern Railway. By Julius H. Parmelee. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. xiv, 730. \$4.00.

A practical and scholarly textbook in twenty-five chapters, covering the historical background, operation problems and processes, and public relations.

European Governments and Politics. By F. A. Ogg. Second Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. viii, 936. \$4.25.

A thorough revision of a text which appeared in 1934. Discusses five governmental systems. Twenty-nine chapters treat Great Britain and France, sixteen chapters, Germany, Italy, and the U.S.S.R.

Educational Film Catalog. Compiled by Dorothy E. Cook and Eva Rahbek-Smith. Second Edition. Revised. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1939. Pp. ix, 332. Supplements. \$4.00.

A selected, classified list of 2370 non-theatrical films with a separate title and subject index. Films of special value are starred and are graded for suitability of use for elementary and secondary schools and college for use.

The American Cannon. By Daniel L. Marsh. New York: The Abingdon Press, 1939. Pp. 126. \$1.00.

The president of Boston University selects seven writings as the significant and accepted expressions of the American spirit.

France and Latin-American Independence. By William Spence Robertson. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1939. Pp. 626. \$3.75.

An Albert Shaw Lecture on diplomatic history to fill the gap respecting attitude of Continental Europe toward the insurgent colonies of Spain and Portugal. Notice is taken of French reactions to the Monroe Doctrine.

Warfare: The Relation of War to Society. By Ludwig Renn. New York: Oxford University Press, 1939. Pp. 276. \$2.50.

A veteran of two wars presents in broad outline the natural history of warfare as it has been practised from classical antiquity to the present.

Consumer Credit and Economic Stability. By Rolf Nugent. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 419. Tables. \$3.00.

Presents an analysis of the dynamic characteristics of consumer credit, with a discussion of the possibility of controlling its expansion and contraction in the interest of economic stability.

Home Mission of the American Frontier. By C. B. Goodykoontz. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd., 1939. Pp. 460. \$3.50.

Deals mainly with the efforts of certain Protestants in the East, especially Congregationalists and Presbyterians, to carry the gospel to the frontier and to mold that region in accordance with their traditions and ideals.

The Social Mind. By John Elob Boodin. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. xi, 593. \$3.50.

A synthesis of the foundations of social philosophy.

Geography for To-Day. By a Committee. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1939. Book III, *North America and Asia*, Pp. xii, 404, Illustrated, \$1.75; Book IV, *Europe and the British Isles*, Pp. xii, 404, Illustrated, \$1.60.

Elementary texts prepared by British teachers.

Journal as Ambassador to Great Britain. By Charles G. Dawes. Foreword by Herbert Hoover. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. ix, 442. Illustrated. \$5.00.

Covers the years 1929 to 1932.

The Earth and the State: A Study of Political Geography. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1939. Pp. xvii, 618. Maps. \$3.75.

The differentiation of political phenomena from place to place over the earth is, for the author, the essence of political geography. The central theme is the Eurasian continent. Africa is treated at length.

Peter Anthony Dey. By J. T. Johnson. Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1939. Pp. 246. \$2.00.

The story of a railroad pioneer in the Iowa Biographical Series, edited by Benjamin F. Shambaugh.

Education 1939. A Realistic Appraisal. By Porter Sargent. Boston: The Author, 1939. Pp. 160.

Reprinted from the 23d edition of *A Handbook of Private Schools*.

Questions in Problems in Economics. By George D. Haskell. Fourth Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1939. Pp. vii, 88. Sixty cents.

To accompany *Elementary Economics* by Fairchild, Furniss, and Buck.

Textile Workers and Movie Workers. By The Picture Fact Associates, Alice V. Keliher, ed. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1939. \$1.00 each.

Europe: Versailles to Warsaw. By Ronald Stuart Kain. *The Reference Shelf*, Volume 13, No. 4. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1939. Pp. vi, 456. \$1.25.

Presents the background essential to an understanding of the European crisis. A compilation selected from more than fifty authorities.

A Diplomatic History of the American People. By Thomas A. Bailey. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1940. Pp. xxiv, 806. Illustrated.

An account which emphasizes the role played by public opinion in shaping our foreign policy.

Nationalism and the Cultural Crisis in Prussia, 1806-1815. By Eugene N. Anderson. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1939. Pp. ix, 303. \$2.50.

The author considers nationalism a vital cultural form peculiar to the last one hundred and fifty years. Selects seven Germans as a basis of discussion: Fichte, Arndt, Kleist, Gneisenau, Nathusius, Marwitz, and Frederick William II.

Doctoral Dissertations accepted by American Universities, 1938-1939. Ed. by Donald B. Gilchrist. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1939. Pp. xiv, 113. \$2.00.

A well-known guide (No. 6) which discourages some persons and inspires others.